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Towards EFL learner autonomy: Group work authentic tasks and peer assessment

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Abstract:

This classroom-oriented research investigated the extent to which speaking strategy instruction, oral authentic group work tasks, and peer assessment could lead in promoting autonomy of second year students of English at B.B.A University. Despite the fact that learner autonomy is gaining momentum as an educational phenomenon and many research has sought to find the effect that each of the above variables could have on learner autonomy, no research has tried to test the influence of the three practices (speaking strategy instruction, oral authentic group work tasks, and peer assessment) together in fostering EFL learner autonomy. Data were collected through two phases of the study, utilizing both quantitative methods (quasi-experimental and questionnaires) and qualitative method (semi-structured interviews). The results showed that lack of understanding of the concept, lack of time, and little belief that students were capable of becoming autonomous in their learning were the main barriers that hindered teachers from incorporating learner autonomy in their teaching. Learners' responses reflected their awareness of their responsibility to enhance language proficiency. The findings of this study will provide teachers and policy makers new prospects to promote EFL learner autonomy in higher educational contexts.

Keywords: EFL learner autonomy, oral authentic tasks, peer assessment, speaking strategy instruction,

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List of abbreviations

CLT	: <i>Communicative language teaching</i>
ESL	: <i>English as a second language</i>
EFL	: <i>English as a foreign language</i>
SBI	: <i>Strategy-based instruction</i>
B.B.A	: <i>Bordj Bouarreridj</i>
CL	: <i>Collaborative learning</i>
LLS	: <i>Language learning strategies</i>
SLA	: <i>Second language acquisition</i>
CSs	: <i>Communication strategies</i>
CALLA	: <i>Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach</i>
CF	: <i>Corrective feedback</i>
PA	: <i>Peer assessment</i>

General Introduction

Background of the study

Today, bilingualism or multilingualism is the norm rather than the exception since approximately the entire world's population is multilingual. This fact causes foreign language learning to be an important practical concern. The emergence of communicative language methodology (1970s and 1980s) brought new visions about the roles of learners, teachers and materials used. Learners are no longer seen as passive receivers of ready-made information; they are now the active participants who share in taking decisions that are beneficial to them. Teachers, on the other hand, are given the roles of facilitators, needs analysts, counselors and group process managers (**Richards & Rodgers, 1995**). Materials, too, have the primary role of promoting communicative language use.

Learner-centered approach, which stemmed from CLT, views the curriculum development as a joint effort between the teacher and his/her learners since "...learners are closely involved in the decision-making process regarding the content of the curriculum and how it is taught" (**Nunan, 1988, p.2**). Learners who can play this active role in their learning could be said to be autonomous.

There has been a remarkable growth of interest in the theory and practice of autonomy in language teaching and learning from its origins in the mid-1970s up the end of the 20s century. Learner autonomy, then, is nothing new, but in the last twenty years it has had significant influence on English learning, be it English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL).

The word itself is a Greek one and means self ruling (**Voltz, 2008**). Learner autonomy is generally defined as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (**Holec, 19981, p.3**). **Benson (2001,p.1)** views that Holec's definition of autonomy is not just restricted to language learning but it goes further to talk about developing learners to be responsible and

critical members of the communities in which they live. Little, on the other hand, didn't neglect the cognitive processes involved in effective self-management of learning and saw that autonomy "...is a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action" (**Little,1991,p.4**). Benson and Voller point out in language education the term is used in at least five different ways:

1. for situations in which learners study entirely on their own
2. for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning
3. for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education
4. for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning
5. for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

(Benson & Voller, 1997, pp.1-2)

One should not confuse between learner autonomy and self-instruction or learning without a teacher because the former is a referent of cognitive ability whereas the latter is characterized by a physical isolation that does not necessarily lead to autonomy or independence (**Benson & Voller, 1997, p.9**).

Learner autonomy moves the focus from teaching to learning "The concept of learner autonomy...emphasizes the role of the learner rather than the role of the teacher. It focuses on the process rather than the product and encourages learners to develop their own purposes for learning and to see learning as a lifelong process" (**Jacobs & Farrell, 2001**). This change of roles does not minimize the importance of the teacher. Traditionally, the teacher was the main source of information and his learners sat at his feet waiting to be taught. While the modern teacher's role is no longer to transmit knowledge but to manage learning opportunities and be responsible for creating a classroom learning environment that is supportive of learner autonomy. Also, he/she has to monitor learners' learning and offer them advice to help them

manage learning difficulties. He/she should encourage students to be adventurous and lead them to discover new things on their own. He/she should use more modern/ up-to-date teaching and learning materials. Lessons should be organized in collaboration with learners in regard to both materials and methods.

Moreover, teachers should help their learners to achieve a degree of autonomy and maintain it. This point can be realized if much of the classroom communication is carried out in the target language and if this communication engages them in doing things that are important to them. In other words, a teacher aiming to foster learner autonomy in his/her classroom has to create opportunities for the use of the foreign language which capture as many features of real communication as possible. Communication, then, is not only the goal of but also a channel for learning; and the target language is not only the target but also the content of teaching. One way to spread communication and the target language in the classroom is through authentic tasks. This practice should have value and meaning beyond the classroom, or as Skehan puts it “An activity in which meaning is primary; there is some sort of relationship to the real-world; task completion has some priority; and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome” (1996, p. 38, cited in Mishan, 2004, p. 68)

Anderman (2009, p. 82), in *Psychology of Classroom Learning*, argue that the characteristic features of a high quality authentic tasks are real- world relevance, accessibility, feasibility, sustainability, and alignment to learning goals.

Another element that fosters autonomy in the classroom is pair and group work. Learners’ collaboration in doing tasks can reinforce their understanding and get a taken-as-shared knowledge. **McLeod, Fisher and Hoover (2003, p.146)** encourage students working in groups and argue that such work is time-consuming, needs excellent classroom management skills, entails the challenge of learning from each other, and provides a greater opportunity

for participation and retention. However, group work may not give good results if it is based on an ineffective classroom management and organization. To avoid this failure, the authors see that the following points should be taken into consideration:

- The way students move into groups and, if necessary, furniture rearrangement
- The amount of freedom in movement allowed
- The acceptable noise level
- The plan for solving in-group conflicts
- How division of labor is handled (the organization of students within the group)
- How an individual is accountable within a group
- How to deal with group members who are not completing assigned tasks
- How grading, if any, is done
- How the allotted time is divided
- When work is due (**McLeod, Fisher, Hoover, 2003, pp.146-147**)

Dam (2000), too, calls for this type of arrangement as it permits the exchange and discussion of views, pushes learners to cooperate, and supports individual learner participation. Group- based activities built on a cooperative learning approach, then, enable learners to maintain an appropriate working agenda, as well as effectively implement it, and constantly evaluate learning outcomes.

A big part in implementing autonomy in the classroom is to teach diverse learning strategies and assist the learners in finding the methods that best suit them. **Rubin (1975, p.43)** defines learning strategies as “the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge”. **O’Malley et al (1985, p.23)** view them as “any set of operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information”. Many teachers think that the learners should be aware of Why, What and How

to learn, but this cannot happen without the teacher's guidance and help. In order to reach an autonomous learning, learners need to learn how to set their own goals and choose which learning strategies work best for them.

Over the years, different researchers (**Rubin, 1975; Filmore, 1982; O'Malley et al, 1985; Ehrman and Oxford, 1995; Green and Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; and others**) have employed a variety of approaches to search the relationship between strategy use and language proficiency. Put it in another way, what do good language learners do that makes them more successful than slower language learners.

Green and Oxford (1995), for instance, conducted a large-scale study with Puerto Rico's university students on the use of 23 learning strategies across proficiency levels. They speculated that such type of strategies may contribute significantly to the learning process without being in them sufficient to move the less successful learners to higher levels of proficiency.

Griffiths (2003) also worked with 348 students in a private language school in New Zealand on the correlation between course level and the use of strategies. Griffiths observed that higher level learners frequently use strategies that involve interaction, those related to vocabulary, to reading, to language systems, to the management of feelings, to the management of learning, and to the utilization of available resources.

Research was not just limited on good language learners. Rather, there was a great awareness that there is a lot to be learnt by observation of what low language learners do and what should they try to avoid. **Sinclair (1995)**, as an example of these latter studies, argues that one of the reasons of her less totally successful efforts to become literate in Chinese was the use of the same strategies and approaches for L2 literacy and L1.

The overt and explicit teaching of learning strategies underlies much of the research in the field of language teaching and learning and the application of these strategies to classroom learning has come to be known as strategy-based instruction (SBI) (for instance **Oxford,1990; Freeman,1991; Cohen,1998;...**).

One of the studies that looked at the effects of the teaching of learning strategies was conducted by Tang and Moore in 1992. The researchers worked mainly on the teaching of cognitive and metacognitive strategies on reading comprehension. The findings showed that cognitive strategy instruction improved comprehension scores and metacognitive one lead to improvements in comprehension ability.

Besides, Nunan (1995) worked with 60 students in a 12 week programme. The aim was to help the learners reflect on their own learning, to develop their knowledge of, and ability to apply learning strategies, to assess their own progress, and to apply their language skills beyond the classroom. Nunan's conclusion was that language classrooms should focus on teaching both content and an awareness of language processes.

Another cornerstone of implementing learner autonomy in the classroom is peer assessment. Erwin (**1991, cited in Javaherbakhsh, 2010, p.214**) considers assessment as the process of defining, analyzing, interpreting, and using information to increase students' learning and development. **Veltcheff and Hilton (2003, p.141)** view assessment as a permanent process that puts the teacher and the learners on a continued communication around learning.

Criticisms on traditional assessment and standardized tests, which were based solely on formative and summative evaluation, call for new ways of testing learners' classroom language performance. As a result, authentic classroom assessment was applied. Woolfolk (**2001, p.555**) believes that this new type of assessment necessitates learners to apply skills

and abilities as they would in real life. The key element within authentic, or alternative, assessment is that learners are evaluated on what they integrate and produce rather than on what they are able to recall and reproduce. Thus, the criteria of alternative assessment are:

Focus is on documenting individual student growth over time, rather than comparing students with one another.

- Emphasis is on students' strengths (what they know), rather than weaknesses (what they do not know).
- Consideration is given to the learning styles, language proficiencies, cultural and educational backgrounds, and grade levels of students. (**Javaherbakhsh, 2010, p.214**)

Moreover, **Hamayan (1995, cited in Javaherbakhsh, 2010, p.214)** sees that:

- Assessment is based on authentic tasks that demonstrate learners' ability to accomplish communication goals.
- Instructor and learners focus on communication, not on right and wrong answers.
- Learners help to set the criteria for successful completion of communication tasks.
- Learners have opportunities to assess themselves and their peer.

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000, p.211) demand the use of various procedures and sources for sampling language proficiency including self and peer assessments. Self-assessment is a way to collect information about the learner's knowledge in a language. Peer-assessment provides learners with opportunities to contribute to the assessment process. **Chan (2000, p.80)** claims that peer assessment "...adds a more personal dimension to the whole assessment process and helps individual students develop expertise in reflection, self-assessment, and evaluation. In this way, it is hoped that they will be able to assess the extent of their own learning more effectively".

Statement of the problem

In today's evolving world, there is a need to make teaching and learning of foreign languages more dynamic and interesting. Learner autonomy has been an important focus of educational practices and research for more than three decades.

Though defining learner autonomy is no simple task, but there is a general agreement in all the literature, as cited in [Barillaro, 2011](#), that autonomous learners are those who understand the purposes of their learning curricula, accept being responsible for their learning, have a hand in creating their own goals and objectives, plan practice opportunities, select and implement appropriate learning strategies, and regularly review and evaluate their progress and learning proficiency.

One of the key principles of learner autonomy is moving the spotlight from teaching to learning. This change doesn't mean that the teacher becomes obsolete or redundant. Rather, it means that learners should have a word in why, what, and how to learn. In order to be regarded as autonomous, learners have to take control of their learning systematically. This control has to do with the behavior that they employ in order to manage the planning, organization and evaluation of their learning, together with its cognitive and content aspects. Nevertheless, these realizations cannot be applied without the encouragement and assistance of teachers.

In order to ensure the success of learner autonomy, course task should replicate real-world communicative tasks. A good task, or activity, should be relevant, one should learn from it, it should not be too easy or too difficult, it needs to cater to individual learners' interests and needs and be appropriate for cooperation.

Group work, too, is an important part of the learner autonomous classroom. Learners' independency on the teacher laid the groundwork for peer assistance where students interact with each other in ways that enhance their learning.

Strategy training, or the explicit teaching of learning strategies, can help learners to achieve their goals because it promotes self-direction. Strategy- based instruction means that teachers assist their learners in developing skills in learning how to learn and skills related to strategy use.

The goal of learner autonomy is to develop learners who know where they stand at any point in their language learning. They are acquainted with what tasks they can perform in the target language and even what linguistic range, fluency and accuracy they possess. In other words, in an autonomous classroom, the assessment too should not be only the teacher's responsibility, but also the learners.

As Algerian teachers, we are particularly interested in implementing learner autonomy in our classrooms, but how exactly can one do that? In theory, it sounds simple and effective, but for some teachers it can be daunting to shift the focus from the teacher to the learner and thus give the learners more power.

Aim of the study

It becomes apparent now that our study is about learner autonomy and more precisely on fostering classroom autonomy. The central objectives of this study are:

- a) To recognize the main roles of both teacher and his/her learners within an autonomous classroom,
- b) To test the effectiveness of authentic tasks on learner autonomy,

- c) To determine whether really teachable learning strategies improve learners' language proficiency,
- d) To see to what extent can collaborative work in the classroom lead to autonomy, and
- e) To see if peer assessment of authentic tasks really foster learner dependency

Research questions and hypotheses

Our research considers that the following questions merit to be discussed:

- 1- What are the main roles of both teachers and learners to boost learning autonomy?
- 2- To what extent are teachable learning strategies beneficial for EFL learners' autonomy?
- 3- What are the suitable tasks in an autonomous classroom?
- 4- How should learners be organized to do these tasks?
- 5- What are the appropriate methods for assessing them?

The following hypotheses are set as predictions and answers for the above questions.

- 1- Teachers should not stick to old ways of teaching and deprive learners from experiencing the new adventure of learning. They should be skillful in managing their classes, help learners to develop an awareness of their learning styles and strategies, and introduce tasks that resemble real life communication. As for learners, they should be ready to take control of their learning and be involved in the planning, monitoring and assessment of the learning process.
- 2- Teachers have to teach learning strategies and assist the learners in finding the methods that best suit them. Strategic work may motivate learners to learn and develop a sense of self-efficacy or confidence in their own learning ability. Learners may gradually reach their learning goals and find their own pathways to success.

- 3- Classroom tasks that mirror the real world may play a positive role in learner autonomy. Teachers have to incorporate tasks which relate to learners' real life communicative needs.
- 4- Group work tasks can boost learners' autonomy and help implement a different atmosphere in class. This collaborative work can empower learning even with those students who are only familiar with individual activities. Being collaborative means interacting with others for reinforcing understanding and getting a taken-as-shared knowledge.
- 5- Peer assessment is important to develop learner autonomy. This type of assessment can enhance learners' autonomy at both cognitive and behavioral levels. It may also promote the formation of a learning community within a class.

Research planning and sampling

To achieve the objectives of our study, we need to select a method that helps in collecting data, analyze it, interpret it, and make recommendations. We will conduct our study relying on a mixed-method procedure, by combining quantitative and qualitative approaches together to maximize the validity and reliability of our research results. The instruments that we selected to answer the questions of our research are: quasi-experimentation, questionnaire, and interview.

The quasi-experimental, quantitative approach was chosen for this study because one of the research questions required the use of a research method that would enable me to examine the effect of teachable speaking strategies on students' oral proficiency, thus autonomy, in the real classroom setting. In other words, the quasi-experimental strategy is followed to control and manipulate the teachable speaking strategies' variable and examine the effect that its experimental manipulation has on learners' oral performance (the dependent variable or the outcome of the study).

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In addition, we have designed two questionnaires, as a research technique, for EFL teachers and for learners at the English department of B.B.A. Students' questionnaire was prepared to determine their degrees of learning autonomy and their perception of peer assessment for oral tasks. As far as teachers' questionnaire is concerned, the aim is to recognize the instructors' perspectives about learner autonomy, their definition of the term, their sense of responsibility, beliefs about their learners, constraints to autonomy, and how it can be fostered in teaching English at university.

The third research instrument, which is qualitative in nature, is interviews. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with two EFL teachers of oral expression module and six EFL students. The main aim of semi-structured interviews is to get an in-depth understanding about how students/teachers think about learning/teaching English (beliefs), why they learn/teach English (learner autonomy) and how they learn/ teach English (speaking strategies, oral authentic group work tasks, and peer assessment) at El Bachir El Ibrahimi University in BBA.

Organization of the research

Our thesis will be organized into two parts. The first theoretical part consists of four chapters that support the practical application part. **The first chapter** offers an overview of the literature on learner autonomy. **The second one** is on oral authentic tasks and the techniques of organizing and arranging learners in the classroom to perform the tasks.

Chapter three explores teachable speaking strategies and their roles in enhancing EFL learners' learning autonomy. **Chapter four** discusses types of alternative assessment and focuses on peer evaluation. **The fifth chapter** is devoted for the practical side of this research where it tackles methods used, population, identification of data and collection procedure, the proposed work for EFL students, the questionnaires, and the interviews. **The sixth chapter**

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has to do with data interpretation and analysis. **The last practical chapter** is about the integration of all research tools to discuss the obtained results for each question of our research, followed by advantages and the points that hamper the application of all the discussed points in the classroom. We will end by some suggestions and recommendations that teachers and even learners may apply to fulfill the aim learning autonomy.

Chapter One

Introduction

Over the years, there has been growing recognition of the importance of learner autonomy. This term, together with related concepts such as independent learning, self-direction and self regulation, has become increasingly important in the educational literature, where it has been viewed as both a desirable goal of education and a constituent element of good teaching and learning.

In this chapter, we will start by definitions of autonomy in language learning, the next point will be devoted to misconceptions about learner autonomy. We close our discussion with roles of teachers and learners in an autonomous language classroom.

I.1. Definition of Learner autonomy

With in the field of language learning, learner autonomy is defined as “...an experiment in how learning can be freed from the bounds of any institution, and in how the individual can reclaim control of and responsibility for his or her own education, while investigating the opportunities to learn from a variety of authentic sources” (**Stanchina, 1975, cited in Dickinson ,1977,p.15**) Henry Holec, a prominent figure within the field of autonomy today and the leader of CRAPEL , views autonomy as the ability to take charge of one’s own learning and requires full responsibility for the learning process. For him, the autonomous learner is capable of making decisions concerning all aspects of learning, i.e.:

- determining the objectives;
- defining the contents and progressions;
- selecting methods and techniques to be used;
- monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc).
- evaluating what has been acquired (**Holec, 1981,p.3**).

The foundational definition of Holec states that learner autonomy has consequences not only for the way in which learning is organized but also for the kind of knowledge that is acquired. From this broad definition, many definitions have followed.

Dickinson, in 1987, claims that learners are fully responsible for their decisions, which they implement without the interference of a teacher or an institution.

This term describes the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions. In full autonomy there is no involvement of a teacher or an institution. And the Learner is also independent of specially prepared materials (**Dickinson, 1987, p.11**).

Little (1991:4) conceptualizes autonomy as

“...a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts”

In Holec’s definition, taking charge of one’s own learning is described in terms of the capacity to make decisions whereas in the definition of autonomy given by Little, which is complementary to Holec’s definition, the capacity to take responsibility for one’s own learning is described in terms of control over the cognitive processes involved in effective self management of the learning process.

According to **Benson and Voller (1997, p.02)** the term autonomy has come to be used:

- 1) For situations in which learners study entirely on their own;
- 2) For a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self directed learning;
- 3) For an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education;
- 4) For the exercise of learners responsibility for their own learning;
- 5) For the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

Additionally, **Dam (1990 in Gathercole, 1990, p.16)** regards autonomy as learner's readiness and capability to manage his/her own learning. Benson, however, argued that "there is good reason to believe that control over content is fundamental to autonomy" and that "if learners are self- managing methodological aspects of the learning process, but not learning what they want to learn, their learning may not be authentically self directed"(**Benson, 2001, in Pemberton(eds),2009,p.20**). **Sinclair (2000, in Borg and Al-busaidi, 2012, p.5)** suggests 13 aspects of learner autonomy which appear to have been recognized and broadly accepted by language teaching profession:

1.	Autonomy is a construct of capacity.
2.	Autonomy involves a willingness on the part of the learner to take responsibility for their own learning.
3.	The capacity and willingness of learners to take such responsibility is not necessarily innate.
4.	Complete autonomy is an idealistic goal.
5.	There are degrees of autonomy.
6.	The degrees of autonomy are unstable and variable.
6.	Autonomy is not simply a matter of placing learners in situations where they

7.	have to be independent.
8.	Developing autonomy requires conscious awareness of the learning process, i.e. conscious reflection and decision- making.
9.	Promoting autonomy is not simply a matter of teaching strategies.
10.	Autonomy can take place both inside and outside the classroom.
11.	Autonomy has a social as well as an individual dimension.
12.	The promotion of autonomy has political as well as psychological dimension.
	Autonomy is interpreted differently by different cultures.

Table I.1: Defining learning autonomy (**Sinclair, 2000**)

Benson has not isolated learning autonomy from its social context. He claims that learners have to control their learning situations by interacting with others in the learning process. He focuses on the point that control is a matter of collective decision making and not individual one. “Greater learner control over the learning process, resources and language cannot be achieved by each individual acting alone according to his or her own preferences. Control is a question of collective decision-making rather than individual choice” (**Benson, 1996 in Benson, 2001, p.49**).He further describes three levels at which learner control may be exercised: learning management, cognitive processes and learning content.

The three levels are interrelated, where effective learning management depends upon control of the cognitive processes involved in learning. Control of this latter has consequences for the self management of learning.

Little (in Cottrel and Crabbe, 1999, p.11) views that autonomy is an explicit behavior that embraces both the process and the content of learning. He says that in formal educational contexts.

...the basis of learner autonomy is acceptance of responsibility for one's own learning; the development of learner autonomy depends on the exercise of that responsibility in a never ending effort to understand what one is learning, why one is learning, how one is learning, and with what degree of success, and the effect of learner autonomy is to remove the barriers that so easily erect themselves between formal learning and the wider environment in which the learner lives

It means that learners have to develop a critical awareness of goal and methods to be truly responsible of their own learning and hence overpass the limitations between formal learning and the environment in which they live.

Little considers that autonomy is a universal human capacity. This fact shows the link between developmental learning and formal one where in the first autonomy begins as an implicit phenomenon and becomes explicit. In other words, in formal learning contexts, there is a decisive shift from the implicit to the explicit. Autonomy, in this way, is achieved with varying degrees of explicitness due to differences of genetic endowment as well as environmental influences. By environmental influences, Little means the sociocultural factors that give learners capacities, which they are able to develop, their distinctive shape from one setting to another.

Scharle and Szabo (2000, pp.3-4) talk about autonomy and responsibility and try to agree on where responsibility ends, and where autonomy starts. For them autonomy is "...the freedom and ability to manage one's own affairs, which entails the right to make decisions as

well”. And responsibility is “...being in charge of something, but with the implication that one has to deal with the consequences of one’s own actions”. Both researchers argue that the two terms are indistinguishable and that, in order to foster learner autonomy, there is a need to develop a sense of responsibility and encourage learners to take an active part in making decisions about their learning.

Benson (2013, p.89) mentions that research on individual learners needs to be put in its social contexts. He claims that:

Autonomy in language learning legitimately foregrounds the individual dimensions of language learning and the importance of individuals learning languages for their own purposes, with diverse outcomes. If this focus were to be lost, there would be little purpose in retaining the term autonomy. At the same time, we need to find ways of situating research on individual learners in its social contexts that neither treat the social context as background nor erase the individuality of the learners within assumptions of social cultural conditioning

Murray, in his book “Social Dimensions of Autonomy in Language Learning”, views the issue of learner autonomy from a social angle, where he tries to tackle the ways in which learner autonomy might be socially mediated. **O’Leary (in Murray, 2014, p.20)** proposes a revised definition, which is based on **Benson’s (2001)** definition that gave a more prominent place to ‘meta’ affect and focused on the social dimension of the concept. She claims that:

Autonomy in language learning within a formal institutional context, depends on the development of learners’ psychological and emotional capacity to control their own learning through independent action, both within and outside the classroom, and to contribute to the creation of an informational and collegial learning environment, in partnership with their teachers and other learners, which

is conducive to effective and interactive independent/interdependent learning through:

1. The development of a capacity for critical reflection, decision making and independent action (**after Little 2000a**);
2. The willingness to take responsibility for determining the purpose, content, rhythm and method of their learning, monitor its progress and evaluating its outcome (**after Little 2000a**);
3. The development of the ability to monitor one's own and other's emotions, to discriminate amongst them, and to use the information to guide one's own thinking and action (**after Salovey and Mayer 1990**);
4. The willingness to take responsibility for the affective dimension of the learning process (**after Ushioda 1996**);
5. The development of the ability to cooperate with others and solve conflicts in a constructive way (**after Kohonen 1992**);
6. The willingness to take responsibility for one's conduct in a social context (**after Kohonen 1992**);

Tomoko Yashima (in Murray, 2014, p.61) regards the concept of autonomy as becoming more complex, following recent developments in applied linguistics and in particular of expanded theoretical frameworks. He says "Though it has been used as a synonym for independence, it embraces the sense of interdependence, as in working with teachers and friends".

Jimenez et al. (2007, p.1) combine learner and teacher autonomy in their definition of autonomy and claimed that it is the "competence to develop as a self determined, socially responsible and critically aware participant in (and beyond) educational environment, within a vision of education as (inter) personal empowerment and social transformation" (**in Kuhn**

et al, 2012, p. 24). **Kohonen (in Kuhn et al, 2012, p.24)** views autonomy as ultimately a question of individual growth and its construction is enhanced by interaction. For him, the notions of autonomy, authenticity and agency are interrelated.

Paiva (2006, in Murray, Gao and Lamb 2011:63) argues that:

autonomy is a socio-cognitive system nested in the SLA system. It involves not only the individual's mental states and processes, but also political, social and economic dimensions. (...). Autonomous learners take advantage of the linguistic affordances in their environment and act by engaging themselves in second language social practices. They also reflect about their learning and use effective learning strategies

Benson (in Pemberton, Toogood and Barfield, 2009, p.18) relies on three strategies to define autonomy: the Kaleidoscopic, exegetical and quintessential strategies. They are metaphors used to make sense of autonomy. The first strategy is about shaking up a number of objects, in this case components of a capacity for autonomy, until they fall into some meaningfully ordered pattern. The exegetical strategy is based on the critical interpretation of an ancient sacred text, which is here **Holec's (1981)** definition. The last strategy involves an attempt to try to discover, or isolate, what is most essential to autonomy. It privileges the psychological or political perspective.

Nation (2001, p.394) states that "autonomous learners take control and responsibility for their own learning". Here control and responsibility are treated as two sides of the coin of autonomy. Autonomy is also discussed by **Freire (1996, in Xhaferri et al. 2015, p.115)** who perceives it as the learners' capacity and freedom to construct and reconstruct the thought knowledge.

Furthermore, **Hedge (2000, p.410 in Xhaferri et al 2015, p.115)** claims that autonomy is the ability of the learner to take responsibility for his or her own learning and to plan, organize, and monitor the learning process independently of the teacher. However, **Kenny (1993, p.440)** sees it as

not just a matter of permitting choice in learning situations, or making pupils responsible for the activities they undertake, but of allowing and encouraging learners, through processes deliberately set up for the purpose, to begin to express who they are, what they think, and what they would like to do, in terms of work they initiate and define for themselves

I.2. Misconceptions about learner autonomy:

Little (1990, p.7) argues that autonomy is not “a single, easily describable behavior”. He identifies several basic misconceptions about language learner autonomy and highlights that:

- Autonomy is not a synonym for self instruction; in other words, autonomy is not limited to learning without a teacher.
- In the classroom context, autonomy does not entail an abdication of responsibility on the part of the teacher; it is not a matter of letting the learners get on with things as best they can.
- On the other hand, autonomy is not something that teachers do to learners; that is, it is not another teaching method.
- Autonomy is not a single, easily described behavior.
- Autonomy is not a steady state achieved by learners.

Esch (1998, p.37) states that learner autonomy does not mean “self instruction/learning without a teacher;...it does not mean that intervention on initiative on the part of a teacher is banned;...it is not something teachers do to learners; i.e. a new methodology;... it is not a

single easily identifiable behavior;...it is not steady state achieved by learners once and for all.”

Building on Little’s theoretical work in autonomy and mainly on his discussion about learner autonomy misconceptions, **Aoki and C .Smith (in Cottoral and Crabbe, 1999, pp.21-22)** added new misconceptions about this term. The first misconception is that autonomy is a (new) methodology. It means that it is not an approach enforcing a particular way of learning. The second misconception has to do with individualism. In fact, autonomy does not entail total independence. In the context of second language education, Little emphasizes that: “because we are social beings our independence is always balanced by dependence; our essential condition is one of interdependence. Total detachment is a principal determining feature not of autonomy but of autism” **(1991, p.5)**.

Autonomy, as Kohonen puts it, includes the notion of interdependence that is being responsible for one’s own conduct in the social context: being able to cooperate with others and solve conflicts in constructive ways” **(1992:19)**. Moreover, **Crabbe (1993:444)** says that “Autonomy is not presented as a radical alternative to classroom based learning; it is to do with ensuring quality of learning by putting the control over learning in the place where the learning occurring: the learner’s mind”.

The third misconception discussed by Aoki and Smith is that validity of autonomy depends on psychological/cultural considerations. They view that decisions for or against the pursuit of learner autonomy in any context may rest on political rather than “cultural” or “psychological” considerations.

Thanasoulas (2000, p.10) regards that learner autonomy is not the synonym of “unbridled learning”; it rather flourishes by intrapersonal initiation, interpersonal collaboration, and learner-centered instruction.

I.3. Teacher and learner's roles in an autonomous classroom

The term democracy is also used when we talk about teaching. It has to do with that shift from old to new, from teacher centered to learner-centered learning. Autonomy, hence, is not only the “how I teacher” but is also the “how I learn best and why” and once we take this into consideration, a whole new adventure in teaching will begin.

I.3.1. Learners Role

Dickinson (1993) sees that autonomous learners are totally responsible for their learning decisions and the implementation of those decisions. She also claims that those learners can select appropriate learning strategies and make use of them; they are able to self access, to assess their use of different strategies, and to evaluate their own learning (**Dickinson, 1993, pp.330-331**).

Little (2002, in Xhaferri.et al, 2015, p.53) claims that learners should be aware why they are learning specific topics, accept this responsibility of learning and involve in all aspects of learning from planning implementing to assessing. **Dam (1995 in Xhaferri.et al, 02015, p.53)** argues that learners have to act independently and in cooperation with others, as socially responsible people.

Lowes and Target (1999, in Xhaferri.et al, 2015, p.53) view learners in an autonomous environment as valued members of their learning community (their class). They have to be able to learn on their own and take responsibility for that.

Breen and Mann (1997, pp.134-136) suggest that autonomous learners:

- See their relationship to what is to be learned, to how they will learn and to the resources available as one in which they are in charge or in control;
- Are in an authentic relationship to the language they are learning and have a genuine desire to learn that particular language;

- have a robust sense of self that is unlikely to be undermined by any actual or assumed negative assessments of themselves or their work;
- Are able to step back from what they are doing and reflect upon it in order to make decisions about what they next need to do and experience;
- Are alert to change and able to change in an adaptable, resourceful and opportunistic way;
- Have a capacity to learn that is independent of the educational processes in which they engaged;
- Are able to make use of the environment they find themselves in strategically;
- Are able to negotiate between the strategic meeting of their own needs and responding to the needs and desires of other group members.

Candy (1991, pp.459-466) talks about competencies associated with autonomy in learning and grouped them under thirteen headings. According to Candy, the autonomous learner will:

- Be methodical and disciplined
- Be logical and analytical
- Be reflective and self-aware
- Demonstrate curiosity, openness and motivation
- Be flexible
- Be interdependent and interpersonally competent
- Be venturesome and creative
- Show confidence and have a positive self-concept
- Be independent and self-sufficient
- Have developed information seeking and retrieval skills

- Have knowledge about, and skill at, learning processes
- Develop and use criteria for evaluating.

I.3.2. Teachers Role

Scharle and Szabo (2000, p.5) argue that teachers have to deviate from their traditional roles gradually rather than abruptly and dramatically. Teachers should show a willingness to take learners in achieving common goals. The researchers (**2000, pp.08-09**) argue that teachers should adopt the following roles:

-Sharing information with the learner: By sharing all the relevant information with students, teachers express respect and a willingness to regard learners as partners in working towards the common aim of learning a foreign language. This includes being very clear about both short and long term objectives. Telling students about the aim(s) of a particular activity helps them to identify with these aims and hence to feel more responsible for the outcome:

-Consistent control:...You may find that, as long as you apply rules consistently, learners are willing to play by these rules. But, make sure not to tighten your control too much, as that may stifle all learner initiative.

-Delegating tasks and decisions:...students can get more involved for example in choosing learning materials or correcting mistakes(...) it is important that the teacher should respect the ways they handle these tasks, and expect learners to deal with the consequences of their decisions. Support them but do not rescue them or, in other words, do not be afraid to let them make mistakes.

Little (1999, 2001, in Barfield and Brown, 2007, p.07) considers that success in language teaching is governed by three principles. The principle of **learner involvement** calls for learners to engage with their learning and take responsibility for key decisions. The second

principle of **learner reflection** entails that learners are taught to think critically about the process and content of their learning. The last principle of **appropriate target language use** shows that the target language is the chief medium of teaching and learning.

Reinders (2010, p.46 in Xhaferri et al, 2015, p. 55) talks about what can the teacher do in order to share the responsibility for learning and summarizes it in the following table.

Learning stages	Teacher –Directed	Learner -Directed
Identifying needs	Placement tests	Learner experiences difficulties in using the language
Setting goals	Determined by the course	Contextually determined
Planning learning	Determined by the teacher	Contextually determined
Selecting resources	Provided by the teacher	Self-selection by learners
Selecting learning strategies	Teacher models and instructions.	Self-selection by learners
practice	Exercises and activities provided by teacher	Implementation(language use) and experimentation
Monitoring progress	Classroom feedback	Self-monitoring, peer feedback
Assessment and revision	Tests, curriculum changes	Self assessment, reflection

Table I.2: Stages in the development of learner autonomy (**Reinders, 2010, p.46**)

Sheerin (1997, in Benson and Voller, 1997, p.63) claims that “teachers have a crucial role to play in launching learners into self-access”. Hence, there is need to shift the focus from the teacher and the textbook to the learners. Such change does not consider teachers as redundant or obsolete. It means that learners should be engaged when talking about lessons.

In other words, the organization of lessons should be done in collaboration with learners in regards to both materials and methods.

Voller (1997, in Xhaferri et al, 2015, pp.56-57) mentions three roles for the teacher: the teacher is the facilitator who manages the activities in the classroom and make sure that his/her learners know what is expected of them. He is the counselor who has to teach students leaning strategies explicitly and make them capable of choosing the best ones. The teacher is a resource who helps learners to develop an awareness of their learning styles.

Tomlinson (2003, in Xhaferri et al 2015, p.57) tackles crucial issue in classroom which is differentiation. He says that the teacher, in a differentiated classroom, should take into consideration that learners are different in skills, abilities and background. Thus, the teacher has to accommodate different ways learners learn and to design the lessons to suit his/her learners' needs and differences in the classroom.

Little (2000, in Xhaferri et al, 2015, p.148) puts

I believe that all truly effective learning entails the growth of autonomy in the learner as regards both the process and the content of learning, but I also believe that for most learners the growth of autonomy requires the stimulus, insight and guidance of a goad teacher

Dam (2000, p.18) considers that teachers should help learners to increase their self-esteem by giving them an awareness of how they think and how they learn. **Bajrami (in Xhaferri et al, 2015, p.154)** talks about praise and feedback which is supplied by the teacher as well as the other learners when group work is needed. He adds that the teacher has to give his/her learners opportunities to try various learning strategies in different circumstances. This kind of interaction in the classroom influences the learners' learning processes.

Conclusion

Learner autonomy has gained insights in the field of language teaching and learning. It is a referent of cognitive ability that highlights the role of learners in their educational environment. It emphasizes the role of the learner rather than the role of the teacher. It focuses on the process rather than the product and encourages learners to develop their own purposes for learning and to see learning as a lifelong process. This change of roles does not minimize the importance of the teacher. The modern teacher's role is no longer to transmit knowledge but to manage learning opportunities and be responsible for creating a classroom learning environment that is supportive of learner autonomy. Also, he/she has to monitor learners' learning and offer them advice to help them manage learning difficulties. He/she should encourage students to be adventurous and lead them to discover new things on their own. He/she should use more modern/ up-to-date teaching and learning materials. Lessons should be organized in collaboration with learners in regard to both materials and methods.

Teachers should help their learners to achieve a degree of autonomy and maintain it. This point can be realized if much of the classroom communication is carried out in the target language and if this communication engages them in doing things that are important to them. In other words, a teacher aiming to foster learner autonomy in his/her classroom has to create opportunities for the use of the foreign language which capture as many features of real communication as possible. One way to spread communication and the target language in the classroom is through authentic tasks which is the main focus of the next chapter.

Chapter two

Introduction

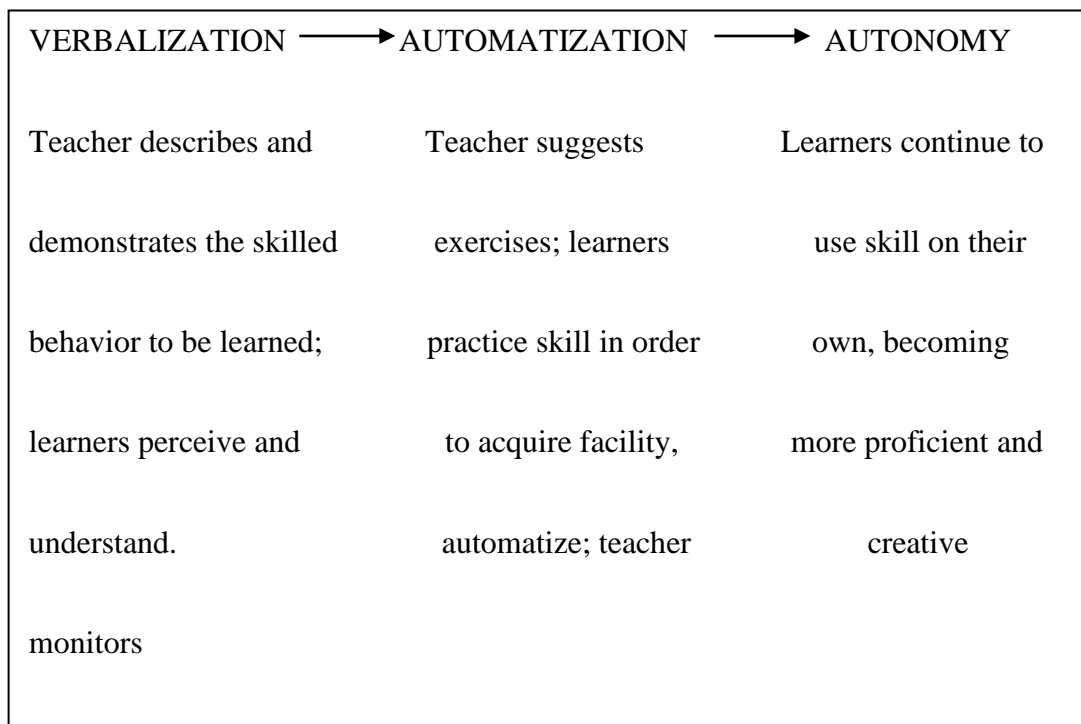
Speaking is said to be the most difficult skill to develop in classroom conditions (Dakowska, 2005, p. 231). EFL learners may equate being able to speak the language as knowing it, and thus achieving a success in learning the language (Komorowska, 2005, in Paradowski, 2005, p. 66). Speaking, however, does not just involve motor-perceptive skills of perceiving, recalling, and articulating in the correct order sounds and structures of the language. The language learner needs to master the interactive skill of using that knowledge and basic motor-perception skills to achieve communication.

The fact that our EFL adult learners have minimal exposure to the target language and contact with native speakers make them poor at spoken English, especially regarding fluency, control of idiomatic expressions, and understanding of cultural pragmatics. Only few of them can achieve native-like proficiency in oral communication. Teachers then have to acknowledge factors that affect EFL learners' oral communication and components that underlie speaking effectiveness to design the appropriate speaking practices that help learners improve their speaking proficiency. Instructors have to develop an eclectic pedagogy built on the belief that the meaning of what is being said is more important than the form in which it is conveyed. They have to tailor their instruction carefully to the needs and interests of learners and teach them how to listen to others, how to talk with others, and how to negotiate meaning in a shared collaborative context.

The current chapter is designed to pinpoint the characteristic features of a successful speaking task and its components. The next point is devoted to tackle the classification of oral tasks in educational research. The second part of this chapter focuses on collaborative work in the language classroom and starts by defining cooperative learning, principles of group

work, cooperative speaking activities, and closes the discussion by stating the main advantages and pitfalls behind the use of cooperative work.

Before we deal with the issue of authentic tasks in the language classroom, I find it worthy to clarify the process of learning a skill in an instructional context. Such process moves through three stages: verbalization, automatization, and autonomy (See figure below). The language teacher starts by presenting and explaining the specific skill, which he wishes his learners to develop, using words. He then leaves them the floor to practice the skillful behavior many times, while monitoring their performance. The students keep performing the skill in a form of exercises until they can master it without thinking back of the teacher’s instructions and explanation (automatization phase). The final stage makes the learners autonomous as they mastered the skill and begin to use it and improve it on their own through



further practices.

Figure II.1: SKILL LEARNING (Ur, 1996, p.20)

II.1. Features of a good speaking task

Classroom practice is an important component of a language course. Teachers then are required to design or select the appropriate tasks that are situated in meaningful contexts and reflect real life situations. Such tasks are known as “authentic tasks” and a great number of researchers (Ur, 1996; Williams and Burden, 1997; Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000; Luoma, 2004 ;...) argue that they are powerfully effective for learning.

Bialystok (1983,p.103), for example, disputes that a communication task must (a) stimulate real communicative exchange, (b) provide incentive for the L2 speaker/ learner to convey information, (c) provide control for the information items required for investigation and (d) fulfill the needs to be used for the goals of the experiment. **Nunan (1989a, p.10)** proposes that a communicative task

...is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form.

Skehan (1996a, p. 20) explains that a classroom task should focus on meaning rather than form and should resemble real- life language use. **Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000, p.175)** claim that EFL learners need a number of prerequisites to become a truly effective communicator in English:

- -knowing the vocabulary relevant to the situation
- -ability to use discourse connectors such as well; oh; I see; okay
- -ability to use suitable “opening phrases” and “closing phrases” such as Excuse me or Thank you for your help
- ability to comprehend and use reduced forms (reducing vowel sounds is particularly important in English)

- knowing the syntax for producing basic clauses in the language
- ability to use the basic intonation-or tone- patterns of the language
- ability to use proper rhythm and stress in the language and to make proper pauses
- awareness of how to apply Grice's maxims in the new language
- knowing how to use the interlocutor's reactions and input
- awareness of the various conversational rules that facilitate the flow of talk.

Since most EFL learners do not have an opportunity to learn the target language outside their home country, teachers are required to increase the students' willingness and need to speak using authentic oral interactive tasks. The question that deserves answers here is what makes a classroom activity useful for speaking practice? **Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Hughes, 2002; and Komorowski, 2005 (in Paradowski, 2015, p. 67)** list a number of rules on teaching speaking skills in communicative classrooms:

- learners are provided with multiple opportunities to interact with more proficient peers and with native speakers;
- speaking activities should be preceded by pre-communicative activities helping learners master items of vocabulary and grammar structures which they will use to construct their utterances;
- in the early stages of learning, speaking activities are structured; with time, they enable free practice;
- in the early stages of learning speaking activities require students to produce one-sentence utterances; with time, students learn how to produce longer and more complex discourses;
- speaking activities should aim at developing effectiveness and fluency of the message;
- there should be a clear distinction between activities developing fluency and activities developing accuracy;

- visual and aural aids should be used in order to elicit utterances from students;
- situations in which students practice speaking need to be relevant to their lives and interests;
- speaking activities should lead to activities integrating the remaining skills.

Ur (1996, p.120) argues that speaking task should maximize learners' talk and not that of the instructor, all members of the classroom should get equal chances to participate and intervene, the topic of the activity should reflect learners' interest and needs, and the production of these learners should be relevant, comprehensible, and of an acceptable level of language accuracy.

Richards and Renandya (2002, p.209) create the following criteria for effective interactive activities:

- be based on authentic or naturalistic source materials
- enable learners to manipulate and practice specific features of language
- allow learners to rehearse, in class, communicative skills they need in the real world
- activate psycholinguistic processes of learning

To maximize autonomous language use in the classroom, **Thornbury (2005, pp.90-91)** argues that a speaking task should ensure a high level of language production, have a clear outcome that learners will work collaboratively to achieve it, create an interactive atmosphere in the language classroom, bear a suitable degree of challenge and excitement for participants, and should have some relation to real-life language use. **Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000, pp.177-178)** insist on the notion of feedback as an integral part of spoken practice. They claim that language instructors should provide learners with personal feedback that strengthens them rather than embraces them. Teachers may encourage peer feedback, self evaluation, or checklist to improve students' spoken delivery in a foreign language.

Anderman (2009, p.82) also argues that a high quality authentic task should include real-world relevance, accessibility, feasibility, sustainability, and alignment to learning goals.

II.2. Task components

Researchers in the field of language teaching and learning (**Shavelson and Stern, 1981; Candlin, 1987; Wright, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Legutke and Thomas, 191 ;...**) tried to identify the elements that make up a task. One such analysis is that of **Nunan (1989, p.48)**, who views tasks as consisting of six elements: goals, input, activities, teacher roles, learner roles, and settings (See figure below). TASKS

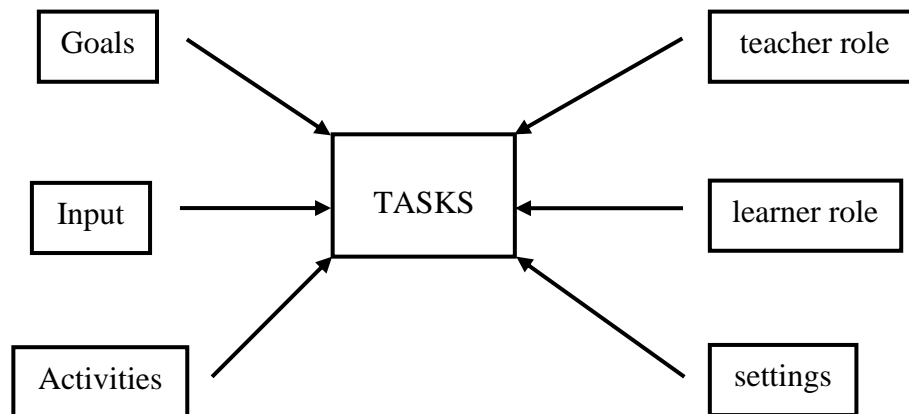


Figure II.2: A framework for analyzing communicative tasks (**Nunan,1989, p.48**)

Goals are a guideline in the overall process of task performance and may cover a broad range of pedagogical objectives from general outcomes (for example, improving learners' communicative competence or developing language skills) through specific ones (example, making a hotel reservation or making a travel plan in the target language). Of key importance, among other things, are the explicit statements used in directing task participants to manipulate given materials, and imply what the results of a certain experience will be. Another point worth noting is that goals should properly reflect learners' needs and interests in order to stimulate their potential motivation for language use.

Input data refers to verbal or non – verbal materials, which task participants have to deal with when performing a task. Actually, input data can be derived from a wide range of sources in a real world context (newspaper article, diary, weather forecast, notice board items, and so on). Another component of tasks is activity which specifies what the learners will actually do with the input. Tasks also involve teacher roles and learner roles, having already considered the main functions of language teachers and learners in an autonomous classroom, and settings which will be focused on in the second part of this chapter.

Based on the criteria of a successful speaking task, attempts have been done to design oral activities that are relevant to eliciting spoken-language production.

II.3. Classifications of speaking tasks

Researchers within the communicative approach design an ample number of interactive speaking tasks that can help EFL learners improve their speaking proficiency.

II.3.1. Thornbury's speaking tasks

Thornbury (2005, pp. 94-110) suggests that giving presentations and talks in front of the whole class prepare learners for real-life speaking. The presenters and the teacher have to look for ways that maintain audience interest and attention. The listeners may be given a checklist or asked to come up with questions at the end of the presentation. Stories, jokes, and anecdotes are another example of oral language tasks, where students are encouraged to tell their own stories. Guess the lie is one form of storytelling-based activities, where participants tell each other three short personal anecdotes, two of which are true and the third of which is totally plausible. The listeners have to guess the lie and give reasons for their guesses, and may even be allowed to ask limited questions after the story. The third type of speaking tasks embraces drama, role play, and simulation. Learners can use their imagination and simulate situations that they are likely to encounter when using English in the real world, or adopt

another 'persona' in a role play task and perform in front of their peers. Alibis, shopping around, the inquiry and the soap are all drama activities that Thornbury views as potentially highly language productive, can be adapted to different levels of proficiency by changing topics, require few or no materials, and give learners a chance to experience autonomy in the speaking skill. The third type of oral tasks is about discussions and debates, which are regarded as having better effects if they are based on spontaneous topics, either because of something personal that a learner reports or because a topic in the course book triggers some debate. In the absence of such opportunities, the instructor can rely on one of the following techniques to set up discussions in a more formal way: discussion cards, warm-up discussion, balloon debate, pyramid or consensus debate, and panel discussion. Conversation and chat are another type of oral tasks which bear little difficulty to be planned, as they are inherently unstructured and spontaneous. Teachers can solve the problem of casual conversations by organizing conversation classes around a set of themes, but have to negotiate the issue with learners beforehand. Thornbury advises instructors to start with more structured activities, which incorporate an element of personalization, like sentence star, true/false sentences, and one of us/some of us exercises to ensure highly interactional exchanges. The last type of tasks that falls under Thornbury's classification of speaking tasks includes outside-class speaking. EFL learners can achieve autonomy if they practice the target language in the real world through taping diaries, audio and video conferencing, human-computer interaction, and portfolios.

II.3.2. Richards and Renandya's classification

The authors of *Methodology in Language Teaching* book propose a number of speaking tasks that involve the use of auditory and visual materials, where learners can develop flexibility in their learning styles and use different learning strategies for different tasks.

Richards and Renandya (2002, pp.209-210) argue that oral task based on aural materials, such as news reports on the radio, can be used as background or as input for interaction in such productive activities.

Audiovisual-based activities can cover the lack of interaction with native speakers, where language teachers can expose learners to these materials, such as films, videotapes, and soap operas, as they can provide “(a)the motivation achieved by basing lessons on attractively informative content material; (b) the exposure to a varied range of authentic speech, with different registers, accents, intonation, rhythms, and stresses; (c) language used in the context of real situations, which adds relevance and interest to the learning process” (**Carrasquillo,1994, p.140**). Students can be placed in a variety of experiences using audiovisual materials, for instance in dialogues, role plays or drama activities, so that they can develop their communicative abilities gradually. Oral activities based on written materials, material-aided activities, can lead to creative production in speech. Hotel brochures, menus, articles in newspapers, and other written sources can be used as an input basis for a number of communicative tasks. Culture awareness oral activities support integration of cultural learning through physical acting of learners while practicing. It can take the form of presenting situations in which there are cultural misunderstandings, and then learners can be asked to determine what went wrong and why, which will provide them a deeper insight into the target culture.

II.3.3. Littlewood’s communicative activities

Littlewood’s (1981, pp.22-64) taxonomy of communicative tasks is divided into functional communication activities and social interaction activities. The first range of tasks involve the communication of information, which means that the teacher has already structured the situation so that learners are required to work towards a definite solution or decision. The researcher suggests four main kinds of these activities:

1. Sharing information with restricted co-operation:
 - Identifying pictures: learner A has the set; B has just one of the pictures. A has to discover which one B is holding by asking him questions about it.
 - Discovering identical pairs: one learner has to question several learners to know who holds the same picture as his.
 - Discovering sequences or locations: A has a particular sequence of pictures, and B has to arrange his in the same sequence.
 - Discovering missing information: two learners each have an incomplete table and each has to get missing information from the other.
 - Discovering missing features: A has a complete picture, and B has the same picture but with features missing. A has to discover the missing features of his partner's picture by asking him questions.
 - Discovering secrets: one learner has a piece of secret information, which the others have to discover by asking appropriate questions.
2. Sharing information with unrestricted cooperation:
 - Communicating patterns and pictures: A has a number of shapes to arrange into a pattern, and B has the same shapes. They must communicate with each other to reproduce as exactly as possible the same patterns.
 - Communicating models: following the same procedure of the previous activity, using pieces of Lego.
 - Discovering differences: A and B have pictures which bear slight differences. They have to discuss the pictures to discover the differences.
 - Following directions: A and B have identical maps, but A knows the exact location of some building. He must direct B to the correct spot.
3. Sharing and processing information:

- Reconstructing story sequences: each member of the group has a picture from a story; without seeing each other pictures, they have to reconstruct the story.
- Pooling information to solve a problem: A has some information (train times from X to Y), B has compatible information (train times from Y to Z), and together they decide on the solution (let us say, the quickest possible journey from X to Z).

4. Processing information:

They resemble problem-solving situations outside the classroom. The teacher here has to adapt the activities to the interests and needs of his pupils. Examples of such tasks may encompass placing items in order of importance, devising a story from random picture cues, and others.

The second type of Littlewood's oral tasks is social interaction activities, where learners have to pay more attention to the social as well as the functional meanings that language conveys. These activities approximate more closely to the kind of communication situation encountered outside the classroom. The first range of activities that fall under this category exploit the classroom environment as a social context. They include conversation or discussion sessions, simulations, and role plays.

II.3.4. Rivers and Temperley's interactional activities

Rivers and Temperley suggest pseudo-communicative skill getting activities will lead to spontaneous communication, facilitate and stimulate autonomous interaction. The authors present fourteen categories of use that learners have to deal with properly, so as to develop autonomous interaction. To do so, students must learn early to express their personal intentions through all kinds of familiar and unfamiliar recombination of the language elements at their disposal. It does not mean that students should be given a variety of activities, which fit under these categories, and think that they will handle from the earliest stage of learning. Rather, "the teacher will select and graduate activities to propose from

these categories, so that the attitude of seeking to communicate is developed early in an activity which is within the student's growing capacity" (1978: 48).

On the basis of this view, the authors suggest a number of activities for each category:

1. Establishing and maintaining social relations: short dialogues based on small situations: answering the door; making a telephone call; giving birthday greetings; interacting at a party; welcoming visitors, customers.
2. Expressing reactions: situations requiring reactions to TV show, photographic/painting exhibition, or s or slide show.
3. Hiding one's intention: students given a mission to carry out must not reveal it under any provocation; for example, the group decides on a spying mission, and individual group members are questioned by other groups to find out the mission.
4. Talking one's way out of trouble: students are asked awkward or embarrassing questions which they must answer or avoid without making any revelation.
5. Seeking and giving information: interviews, surveys, questionnaires, small projects, involving class members or outsiders.
6. Learning or teaching how to make or do something: for example, a sport, a hobby, a craft, a dance, a game.
7. Conversing over the telephone: social calls or enquiries about goods, services, or timetables.
8. Problem- solving: guessing games; interrogation games like Alibis, Guilty Party; logical puzzle-solving; project study.
9. Discussing ideas: arising from readings, stories, films; projects; controversial debating topics; short texts.
10. Playing with language: crossword puzzles; spelling games (Scrabble, Hangman, etc.); nonsense rhymes; charades; word histories.

11. Acting out social roles: dramatic improvisations, based on simple situations and character description.
12. Entertaining others: through producing a show, or concert, a TV or radio-type programme or show.
13. Displaying one's achievements, after another activity such as a project report.
14. Sharing leisure activities: participation in typical national meals, festivities, celebrations, or pastimes.

As stated earlier in this chapter, one of the key components of tasks is setting, which refer to the physical arrangement of learners while performing a given task. Researchers (**Anderson and Lynch, 1989; Smith and McGregor, 1992; Hess, 2001, and others**) advocate the use of collaborative oral tasks in the language classroom, as they increase the cooperation and cohesiveness among learners. Discussion of this point is the main concern of the second part of this chapter.

II.4. Collaborative learning

Cooperative learning, as an instructional approach, is regarded to be associated with gains in achievement, higher-level thinking, self-esteem, and established relations between different ethnic groups (**Mc Cafferty, Jacobs, and Dasilva, 2006, p.6**). In an earlier interview, **Johnson** (in **Brandt, 1987, p. 12**) stated:

If there is any one educational technique that has firm empirical support, it's cooperative learning. The research in this area is the oldest research tradition in American social psychology. The first study was done in 1897; we've ninety years of research, hundreds of studies. There is probably more evidence validating the use of cooperative learning than there is for any other aspect of education.

Collaborative learning works best the aims of learner autonomy as it allows learners to take responsibility for their own learning and gives them a large role in controlling their learning process.

In large multilevel classes, collaborative work is a key element as it permits students to learn from one another. Group work gives learners a greater chance to practice oral fluency, reduce their stress and anxiety, and enjoy sharing ideas and practicing (Hess, 2001, p. 112).

II.4.1. Definitions of collaborative learning

Smith and Mc Gregor (1992, p. 11) regard collaborative learning as a joint effort by learners, or learners and teachers together “ In most collaborative learning situations students are working in groups of two or more, mutually searching for understanding, solutions, or meanings, or creating a product”. Macaro (1997, p. 134) views CL as a shared work among learners to achieve their learning goals, where they are required to value and respect each other’s work.

Teacher in a collaborative classroom is no more a transmitter of knowledge to learners, but a designer of intellectual experiences for them. Bruffee (1992, p. 32) claims that the major difference between traditional classroom practice and collaborative learning is about the social context or environment in which learners work “Students’ work tended to improve when they got help from peers, peers offering help, furthermore, learned from the students they helped and from the activity of helping itself”. Barbara Smith and Mc Gregor (1992 ,p.10) hold that collaborative learning, under a social, intellectual and mutual scope, aims to cope with educational and societal difficulties of the 1980’s including the distance between faculty and students, the fragmentation of the curriculum, a prevailing pedagogy of lecture and routinized tests, an educational culture that reinforces student passivity, high rates of students attrition, and a reward system that gives low priority to teaching.

agents in the process of learning and not passive receivers of the product of any given knowledge. **Olsen and Kagan (1992, in Sachs, Candlin, Rose, and Shum, 2003, p. 181)** view cooperative learning as “group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others”. **Slavin (1990, p.20)** regards this technique as a process where students work together “to master material initially presented by the teacher”.

Dividing learners, however, into groups does not always ensure that there will be a well established kind of cooperation. Researchers (**Johnson and Johnson, 1994b; Kagan, 1994; Jacobs et al, 2002**) talk about elements of cooperative learning that make the classroom more productive than competitive. These elements are the focus of the coming point.

II.4.2. Principles of cooperative learning

To maximize student-student interaction, cooperative learning should be built on a number of key concepts and principles.

II.4.2.1. Positive interdependence

This crucial concept is based on the spirit of the group, i.e. “the perception among group members that what helps one group member helps all group members, and what hurts one group member hurts all” (**Mc Cafferty, Jacobs and Iddings, 2006 ,p.4-5**). Cooperation occurs if all members of the group are highly aware that each member benefits from their efforts, and that they depend upon each other. One owns success is the same as collective success. Johnson and Johnson (in **Gillies, Ashman, and Terwel, 2008, pp.19-21**) classified positive interdependence into three categories: outcome, means, and boundary. Learners, in a cooperative classroom, work together to attain a given goal or outcome and rely on a number of means that help them to do so. Such means embrace resource, role, and task

interdependence. Boundaries, however, are about discontinuity that may exist between members of the team and include outside enemy (negative interdependence with another group), identity (which binds them together as an entity), and environmental (such as a specific work area). The Manual of Cooperative Learning: **Theory and Practice (2009, p. 6)** suggests a number of techniques that teachers may use to promote positive interdependence.

They include:

- Establishing mutual goals (learn and make sure that other group members learn),
- Using joint rewards which means that all group members will be rewarded if they accomplish a given task successfully,
- Providing resources that have to be shared,
- Assigning roles to individuals,
- Strengthening a feeling of shared identity by asking groups to name their teams,
- Each group member's efforts are needed and indispensable for group success,
- Each group member has a specific contribution to bring to the group.

Interdependence, however, may be exploited negatively if it takes the form of a competitive behavior, in which learners discourage and hinder each other's effort to achieve. It is a kind of oppositional interaction because learners' aim is to increase their achievement and obstruct their group mates from achieving higher than they do. We may talk too of individualistic interdependence where interaction is absent within group members. Students work to obtain their achievement and regard each other's efforts as irrelevant. Collaboration, thus, should be taken as more than occasional cooperative learning activity; rather, students should "feel connected to their peers and that they experience the classroom as safe, supportive community not a place of isolation and certainly not a place where they must compete against one another" (**Kohn, 1998, in McLeod, Fisher, and Hoover, 2003, p. 146**)

11.4.2.2. Individual accountability

Each member is accounted for his effort to the group. Group members have to develop a sense of responsibility toward their team's learning and should contribute actively to the whole group. Individual accountability puts pressure on members to do their fair share in the group to accomplish the CL task. Thus no one can hitchhike on the work of others. The teacher can help to structure individual accountability in the classroom by testing group members and selecting randomly a student from a group to answer questions or explain what they have learnt to the class. Think-Pair-Share is a cooperative learning activity that teachers may use to push learners to listen to their partners carefully and pay attention to his/he speech because each element may be called on to report their partner's ideas to the class, and thus this type of activities would structure their individual accountability (**Kagan, 1994, in Lin 2009 ,p.12**).

11.4.2.3. Equal participation

It means that each member of the group is assigned an equal opportunity to have a hand in the learning task. Members' dominance in the group may affect collaboration negatively and diminish the role of some members "Some children will differ to the more able children in the group who may take over the important roles in ways that benefit them at the expense of other group members. Similarly, others will be inclined to leave the work to others while they exercise only token commitment to the task" (**Gillies, 2003, p.37**)

11.4.2.4. Simultaneous interaction

In a cooperative learning activity, learners need to be arranged in a tight group, facing each other to maximize the quality of interaction and interchange necessary to accomplish the task. Students have to share resources and help, support, encourage, and praise each other's efforts to learn. To facilitate the process of learning, **Johnson and Johnson (1989, in Liang, 2002, p.**

33) suggest minimizing the number of participants within the group, when learners are just beginning to work together and develop their skills. To promote interaction among group members, learners have to a) provide each other with efficient and effective help, b) exchange needed resources (information and materials) and process information, c) provide feedback to improve their performance in a task, d) challenge each other's conclusions and reasoning to obtain higher quality decisions, e) foster the application of efforts to achieve mutual goals, f) influence each other's efforts to achieve the group's goals, g) act in trusting ways, h)struggle to get mutual benefit, i) have a moderate level of arousal characterized by low anxiety and stress (Johnson, Johnson, and Smith, 1995 ,p.13).

11.4.2.5. Interpersonal and small group skills

To cooperate effectively, teachers have to devote class time for students to learn about and reflect on their use of collaborative skills. Such skills involve praising, listening, showing patience, keeping each other on task, orally explaining how to solve problems, teaching one's knowledge to other, checking for understanding, discussing concepts being learned, and connecting present with past learning. When learners become familiar with cooperative learning activities, then teachers can interfere and encourage other social skills as leadership, decision-making, trust building, communication, and conflict-management skills (**Johnson and Johnson, 2009, p.369**)

Teachability of social skills fosters higher achievement and builds more positive relationships among group members (**Putnan, Rynders, Johnson, and Johnson, 1989, p.554**).

Jolliffe (2007, p. 42) suggests a number of steps that teachers have to follow to develop learner's interpersonal skills. The first thing the teacher has to do is to hang a notice board in the classroom entitled "skill of the week" and select one. Here, the researcher distinguishes

between teamwork skills that focus on the content of the task (task skills like generating and elaborating ideas, following instructions staying on task, managing time successfully, and planning and reviewing progress) and those that emphasis on the positive relationships in the group (working relationship skills like helping and encouraging each other, everyone participating, showing appreciation, and reaching agreement). The third step is introducing the skill and then explaining the role of the week to be assigned for learners. Selection of roles, however, is dependent upon the age of learners, their skill level, and the task to be undertaken.

Thus students can be allocated the roles of recorder, material manager, participation checker, organizer, questioner, checker, noise controller, and praiser (Jolliffe, 2007, p.119). Teachers, then, have to select structures that support the specific skill (See Appendix A) and enable the students to practice it. Next, the teacher models the skill to the whole class and reinforces it by monitoring and rewarding groups. The last step is devoted to discuss how well students are using the skill and how they might improve.

Kagan and Kagan (2009,p. 11.27) mention a number of social skills related problems and recommend to follow the above steps to deal with. Social skills challenges include the refusenik (student who refuses teamwork or to cooperate), the outcast (student who is rejected or ignored by teammates), the shrinking violet (the student who is too shy to participate), the dominator (student who dominates team interaction), the bully (student who displays hostility toward teammates), the clown (student who seeks attention by clowning), the drifter (student who is off task or gets teammates off task), and the saboteur (student who undermines teammates and projects).

11.4.2.6. Group processing

After being taught the necessary interpersonal skills, group members have to discuss which actions were helpful and unhelpful and make clear decisions about what actions to continue or

change. The main aim behind group processing is to make sure that learners are achieving their goals and maintaining effective working relationships. In other words, students are given the opportunity to reflect on how well they are functioning and here comes the role of the teacher who is advised to allocate some time at the end of each class for each group to process how effectively members have worked together. To have a good successful group processing, the teacher may have a particular teamwork skill as the skill of the week. During the lesson, he/she provides praises to encourage the development of the skill. At the end of the lesson, he/she asks groups to evaluate their progress with that skill (Jolliffe, 2007,p. 42).

We can resume that cooperative learning can be successful when these principles are practiced and attained and when learners are highly motivated to encourage each other's learning. In order to promote higher achievement using cooperative learning, teachers must know and select appropriately structures or tasks to include the five basic elements that mediate their effectiveness.

As far as our research aim is concerned, we believe that students' achievement of higher level in their capacity to communicate orally can be reached through the use of cooperative speaking activities, which is the focus of the next point.

II.4.3. Cooperative speaking activities

The use of cooperative learning strategies in language classrooms call for the active practice of language, an essential element for learning any language. Cohen (1986, p. 13) views recitation and drill activities as ineffective and do not encourage active practice as group tasks where learners talk with each other and acquire language by using it in a natural, authentic and meaningful context. In a cooperative classroom, learners are actively involved in the learning task as they learn from each other, take risks, expect success because they face challenges together, and they learn different social skills.

Group work activities, however, need to be well planned and designed to make sure learners are highly interacting and communicating together to solve a given problem.

Wegerif, Mercer, and Dawes (1999, p. 495) state the conditions that are required for collaborative interaction as follows:

- All information is shared;
- The group seeks to reach agreement;
- The group takes responsibility for decisions;
- Reasons are expected;
- Challenges are expected;
- Alternatives are discussed before a decision is taken;
- All in the group are encouraged to speak by other group members.

Ur (1991, p. 120) claims that a successful speaking activity has to be occupied by learner talk and not by teacher talk or pauses, students are given equal chances to contribute, learners have an eagerness and willingness to interact to fulfill a task objectives, and language produced is relevant, comprehensible, and of an acceptable level of accuracy.

Cooperative learning embraces a number of methods, activities, or as **Kagan (1994, p.)** names them structures teachers use to conduct classroom instruction. Researchers (**Kagan, 1994; Johnson and Johnson, 1970s; Devries and Edwards, 1970sm; Sharan and Sharan mid 1970s; Cohen, 1980s ;...**) developed different methods that can be relied on in a cooperative classroom.

11.4.3.1. Think-Pair-Share (Lyman, 1992)

In this activity, the teacher asks a question or poses a problem and students start thinking by themselves. They form then pairs and discuss their ideas. The teacher calls upon individual students to share their answers or the answers of their partners with the whole class.

Interpersonal and small group learning skills that can be gained in this activity include sharing an idea, listening carefully, asking clarifying and probing questions, and paraphrasing.

II.4.3.2. *Numbered Heads Together* (**Kagan,2009,p.6.30**)

In a group of three or four, teacher asks a question or poses a problem and learners think by themselves. Once they discuss their ideas, teacher relies on numbers to call randomly on students to report their group discussions. The skill developed in this activity is how to share ideas.

II.4.3.3. *Roundtable with Round robin* (**Kagan, 1992,p.6.34**)

Learners here acquire how to share their ideas and take turns. The teacher starts by raising a problem and students think and write by themselves. In groups of three or four, students go around the table and, in turn, share their responses.

II.4.3.4. *Group interview* (**Kagan,1992**)

The teacher starts by asking a question and learners think by themselves. After that, each student is interviewed for a minute or two by the other members of the group. Learners learn how to share an idea, take turns, think carefully, and ask clarify and probe questions.

II.4.3.5. *Three Step Interview* (**Kagan, 2009,p.6.38**)

The teacher asks a question and students start thinking by themselves. They form pairs and interview each other, one is interviewer and the other is interviewee. Then they reverse roles. After, each pair turned to another pair, forming a group of four. Within the new group, each student shares his/her partner's ideas and interesting points. The use of this activity enables learners to know how to share ideas, take turns, ask for clarification, and how to paraphrase.

II.4.3.5. *Talking chips* (**Kagan, 2009, p. 6.36**)

For this peaking activity, learners need talking chips in the centre of the table. First, the teacher provides discussion topic and think time. Then, the student who starts discussion has to place his/her chip in the centre of the table. Students continue discussing until their chips are all used. After, they collect their chips and continue discussion.

II.4.3.6. *Story completion*

One of the oral activities that help learners to develop their speaking skills is story completion. **Patel and Jain (2008, p. 107)** say that the teacher tells the story many times and then asks learners to repeat it several times. After, he/she asks them to retell the story in their own words. The activity enables learners to develop their logical thinking and sentence sense, and creativity. It is an enjoyable practice that makes learners indulge into the plot of the story and enhance their intercultural understanding and communication.

Ghiabi (2014, p. 23) claim that stories can:

- allow students to explore their own cultural roots.
- allow them to experience diverse cultures.
- enable students to empathize with unfamiliar people, places, and situations.
- offer insights into different traditions and values.
- help student understand how wisdom is common to all people/ all cultures.
- offer insights into universal life experiences.
- help students consider new ideas.
- reveal differences and commonalities of cultures around the world.

It is a motivational activity that pushed learners to link their environment with imaginable events of the story. It promotes a feeling of well being and relaxation, increases learners'

willingness to communicate thoughts and feelings, encourages active participation, increases verbal proficiency, promotes cooperative work and social development among learners, and improve their listening and concentrating skills via visual clues (pictures and illustrations); their prior knowledge; and their general knowledge (Duyjmovic,2006,p. 113-114). O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p. 12) claim that the activity of story completion gives learners an opportunity to develop their speaking abilities and reading comprehension, and the teacher can evaluate the content or language components of students' verbal production.

II.4.4. Advantages and pitfalls of CL in the language classroom

Cooperative learning, unlike competitive or individualistic learning, encourages learners to be in the centre of learning and learn together. CL has a number of cognitive, affective and/or linguistic merits on EFL learners. The collaborative atmosphere in the classroom provides learners with chances to communicate their ideas and thoughts freely (Brecke and Jensen, 2007, p. 57). In a learner-centered class, learners tend to interact with each other, make initiations, negotiate meaning, extend conversational exchanges, and adopt different roles (Brow, 2000, p.178).

The affective advantage of group work is the sense of security/safety that a learner may feel when working collaboratively. He/she is away from public display and criticisms or rejection, and is more comfortable and at ease. Group work may help shy, hesitating, and reticent learners to speak and participate to become vocal participants in the process. In this way, students' intrinsic motivation can increase and they start looking to attain their objectives. Millis (2002, p. 3) supports the idea that cooperative learning enhances social skills where learners respect each other regardless of their ethnic, intellectual, educational; or social backgrounds. They connect and support each other to develop their intellectual synergy and positive relationships.

In a small group work, learners learn to be more responsible of their learning actions and progress. They are more independent because they are required to teach others and to learn from others. This independency permits students to give personal feedback as they exchange ideas and responses.

Fredericks (2005, p.7) pinpoints a number of benefits of cooperative learning:

1. Student achievement. The effects on students' achievement are positive and long-lasting, regardless of grade level or subject matter.
2. Student retention. Students are more apt to stay at school and not drop out because their contributions are solicited, respected, and celebrated.
3. Improved relations. One of the most positive benefits is that students who cooperate with each other also tend to understand and like each other more. This is particularly true for members of different ethnic groups. Relationships between students with disabilities and other students in the class improve dramatically as well.
4. Improved critical thinking skills. More opportunities for critical thinking skills are provided, and students show a significant improvement in those thinking skills.
5. Heightened self-esteem. When students work is evaluated by team members, their individual self-esteem and respect escalate dramatically.

Fluency too can be encouraged in group work and learners' production of the target forms may improve when teachers select structures that provide learners with opportunities to talk, and listen and reflect. Learning can actively be absorbed if problem-solving exercises, informal small groups, simulations, case studies, and role playing are introduced in the classroom (**Myers and Jones, 1993, p. xi**). **Kagan (1994, pp. 3.2-3.6)** adds that cooperative learning boosts achievement, improves ethnic relations in heterogeneous classrooms, develops learners' ability to understand the emotional and cognitive perspectives of their classmates, increases interpersonal attraction, builds communication skills, develops self-esteem and

internal locus of control, increases students motivation, reduces discipline problems, and promotes cognitive development.

Jolliffe (2007, p. 6) summarizes the outcomes of cooperative learning into achievement, interpersonal relationships, and psychological health and social competence. For achievement advantages, learners recognize greater productivity, higher progress gain, greater transfer of learning from one situation to another, more time on task, and greater problem solving. In the same vein, **Cohen (1994, p. 15)** points out:

[...] discussion within the group promotes more frequent summarizing, explaining, and elaborating what one knows; cooperative learning promotes a greater ability to take the perspective of others [...]; in the group setting, one's thinking is monitored by others and has the benefit of both the input of other people's thinking and their critical feedback.

As far as interpersonal relationships are concerned, cooperative learning fosters the development of caring and committed relationships, builds and maintains friendships between peers, develops a sense of belonging and mutual support, and improves learner's morals.

Improvement in psychological health and social competence embraces higher self-esteem, improved self-work, increased self-confidence, greater independence, supports sharing of problems, and increased ability to cope with adversity and stress.

It seems clear that many pieces of research have supported the effectiveness of using cooperative learning approach in EFL classes. This fact does not free this method from any type of pitfalls. **Slavin (1999, p. 74)** talks about "having something all at your fingertips" effect where the hard working members undertake the responsibility of solving the task problem, whereas other team members neglect their roles and display low success. **Johnson**

and **Johnson (1994, in Baloche, 1998, p. 92)** highlight some barriers to high quality cooperation and learning including:

- Lack of group maturity: Groups need time and experience to develop into high-functioning groups.
- Going with the first, and often dominant, response: Groups need time and encouragements to generate many possible answers and solutions that include the efforts of all members, and they need to learn how to recognize and choose which ideas to pursue.
- Goofing off: Groups need to help all members learn to work hard so that everyone contributes and no one feels taken advantage of.
- Fear of disagreement or conflict: Groups need to learn to manage differences of opinion and use differences to build better understanding.
- Lack of ability or motivation to attend to both task and maintenance aspects of group work: Groups must learn how to get the job done while simultaneously building and maintaining their interpersonal relationships.

Brown (2000, pp. 179-182) mentions a number of myths or limitations that may hinder the cooperative work in the classroom. Teachers may not be in control of their classes mainly if they deal with large classes and unruly students. They may also shy away from group work because of learners' covert use of their mother tongue between team members. In large classes, students may reinforce each other's errors and the teacher will not get a chance to correct them. Some students, too, may not prefer to work in groups because this is the way they have operated ever since they started going to school, or as **Hess (2001, p. 112)** notices that this type of students have a kind of inclination to the familiar teacher-fronted process. **Jolliffe (2007, p. 8)** adds that teachers may worry over the ability to effectively assess learners as individuals when they work in groups. Other reasons for a lack of either interest or

success with cooperative learning is the fact that teachers miss explicit teaching of working together skills for their learners, or they may even be unable to plan and manage talk effectively in the classroom. Learners, on the other hand, may display particular difficulties (anger, shyness, rejection, refusal, and noise) because they lack social, emotional, and communication skills to work with others.

Conclusion

Oral authentic tasks play a major role in fostering EFL learners' autonomy, if they reflect real-world situations, accessible, feasible, sustainable, and are adjusted to fit learners' needs and interests. Another element that may raise the effectiveness of oral authentic tasks is collaboration. Teachers should design activities that encourage learners to cooperate between each other, as they are time-consuming, entail the challenge to learn from each other, and provide greater opportunity for participation and retention.

Learners, however, cannot perform these oral tasks if they lack the appropriate skills and strategies that help them to achieve task's goal. This point is the main concern of the next chapter.

Chapter Three

Introduction

In the previous chapter the focus was primarily on the speaking authentic tasks. The scope of the present chapter is much broader. It will tackle the notion of “strategy” in general, present various taxonomies of strategies available to date, talk about speaking strategies that may promote learners’ autonomy, and finally will try to discuss the issue of learner training.

Ellis (1994,p.530) , in his book the Study of Second Language Acquisition shows the significant role of learning strategies in the model of second language acquisition (see figure below). He claims that individual learner differences together with situational and social factor determine the learners’ choice of learning strategies. Learning strategies, in turn, influence two aspects of learning: the rate of acquisition and the ultimate level of achievement.

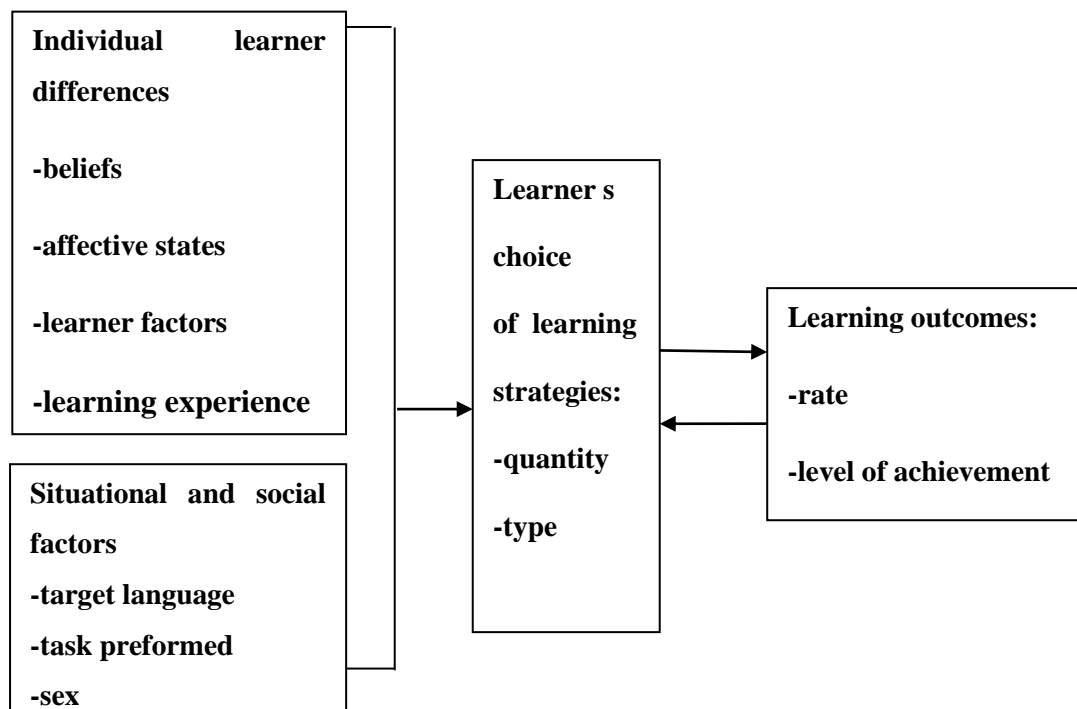


Figure III.1: The relationship between individual learner differences situational factures, learning strategies, and learning outcomes (**Ellis 1994, p.530**)

III.1. Definition of learning strategies

Research into language learning strategies has begun in the 70s. The focus was on factors that potentially affect success in language learning. Good language learners' studies guided researchers to produce an inventory of students' language learning strategies. They have furnished us with a variety of conceptualizations and definitions of the word learning strategy, often with varying terms, labels and emphases.

Rubin (1975,p.43) defines learning strategies as any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information. **Bialystok (1978, p.71)** sees strategies as "optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language". **Naiman et al (1978, p.2)** refer to strategies as general, more or less deliberate approaches which are employed in coping with the problem facing the learner. Brown views a strategy as "...a particular method of approaching a problem or task, a mode of operation for achieving a particular end, a planned design for controlling and manipulating certain information ... "(**1980, p.83 in Drozdial-Szelest, 1997,p.:25**).**Weinstein and Mayer (1986)** claim that learning strategies have learning facilitation as a goal and are intentional on the part of the learner. For them, the goal of strategy use is to "affect the learner's motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge "(**1986, p.315**).**Wenden (1986, p.10)** regards those strategies as steps or mental operations used in learning or as problem-solving where learners are asked to analyze, transform, or even synthesize learning materials to store, retrieve, and use knowledge. **Dickinson (1987, p.20)** says that "Learning strategy is concerned with actual activities and techniques which lead to learning ". Oxford (1989, p.235) points out that the use of learning strategies facilitates language learning, makes it self directed and enjoyable. **Stern (1991 ,p.405)** sought to use the term " strategy" for general tendencies or characteristics employed by the language learners

and “learning techniques” as “...particular forms of observable learning behavior, more or less consciously employed by the learner”. **Richards and Lockharts (1996, p.63)** argue that learning strategies are procedures that learners rely on to perform their learning tasks.

Cook (1992 in Drozdial-Szelest, 1997, p.29) sees learning strategies as choices made by the learners while learning or using the second language. **Cohen (1998, p.04)** regards them as learning processes which are consciously selected by the learner

III.2. Classification of learning strategies

Language learning strategies have been classified by many scholars (**Rubin, 1987; O'Malley, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Stern, 1992 ;...**) who attempted to put them into groups or categories.

III.2.1. Bialystok's learning strategy categories

Bialystok distinguishes four categories of learning strategies (**1978, p.71**)

1. Inferencing –“the use of available information to derive explicit linguistic hypothesis”;
2. Monitoring- the concept derived from Krashen's theory;
3. Formal practicing-“the specific exercise of the language code for the sake of mastering the rule system”;
4. Functional practicing-“it occurs when the language learner increases his opportunity to use the language for communication”

III.2.2. Rubin's classification.

Rubin (1981, pp.124-126), who pioneered much of the work in the area of learning strategies, puts her strategies into two categories: strategies that may directly contribute to learning and those that may contribute indirectly to learning.

III.2.2.1. Processes which may contribute directly to learning

1. **Clarification/ verification:** Are those strategies that learners use to verify or clarify their understanding of the new language. The learner may ask for instance of how to use a word or expression, seek to clarify the communication rules, etc. Here, verification enables less to store information for further use.
2. **Guessing/ inductive inferencing:** Refers to strategies that rely on previously obtained knowledge. Here, the learner can use his prior knowledge to guess the meaning or specific rules of language.
3. **Deductive reasoning:** Is a problem-solving strategy where the learner looks for and uses more general rules.
4. **Practice:** Are strategies which lead to the storage and retrieval of language while focusing on accuracy of usage. They involve: repetition, rehearsal, and experimentation, application of rules, imitation, and attention to detail.
5. **Memorization:** Refers to strategies where attention is paid to the storage and retrieval process. Drill and repetition are used to acquire words or other language elements.
6. **Monitoring:** Are strategies in which the learner notices linguistic and communicative errors, determines a solution and then makes a correction.

III.2.2.2. Processes which may contribute indirectly to learning

1. **Creating opportunities for practice:** Where the learner creates situations with native speakers to practice, spends extra time in the language lab, etc.
2. **Production tricks:** Are strategies based on communication where the learner may use circumlocution, synonyms, etc.

III.2.3. Carver taxonomy

Carver (1984, p.126) proposes a taxonomy of learner methodology where learner strategies arise directly from learning styles and work habits.

1. **Strategies for coping with TL rules** - e.g. generalization, transfer from L1, hyper-correction.
2. **Strategies for receiving performance** - e.g. inferring, predicting, and checking.
3. **Strategies for producing performance** – repeating, labeling, and monitoring reception.
4. **Strategies for organizing learning** – repetition, cognitions, whole or part learning.

III.2.4. Oxford's taxonomy

Ellis (1994, p.539) views Oxford's taxonomy as the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies to date because she tried to include all previously mentioned strategies in the literature. She claims that the quality of a given strategy is related to the context of its use. For her, the following conditions can make a strategy positive and helpful :(a) the strategy related well to the L2 task at hand, (b) the strategy fits the particular student's learning style preferences to one degree or another, and(c) the student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies (**1990,p.08**).

Oxford identifies six major groups of L2 learning strategies and divides them into direct and indirect strategies (See figure below).

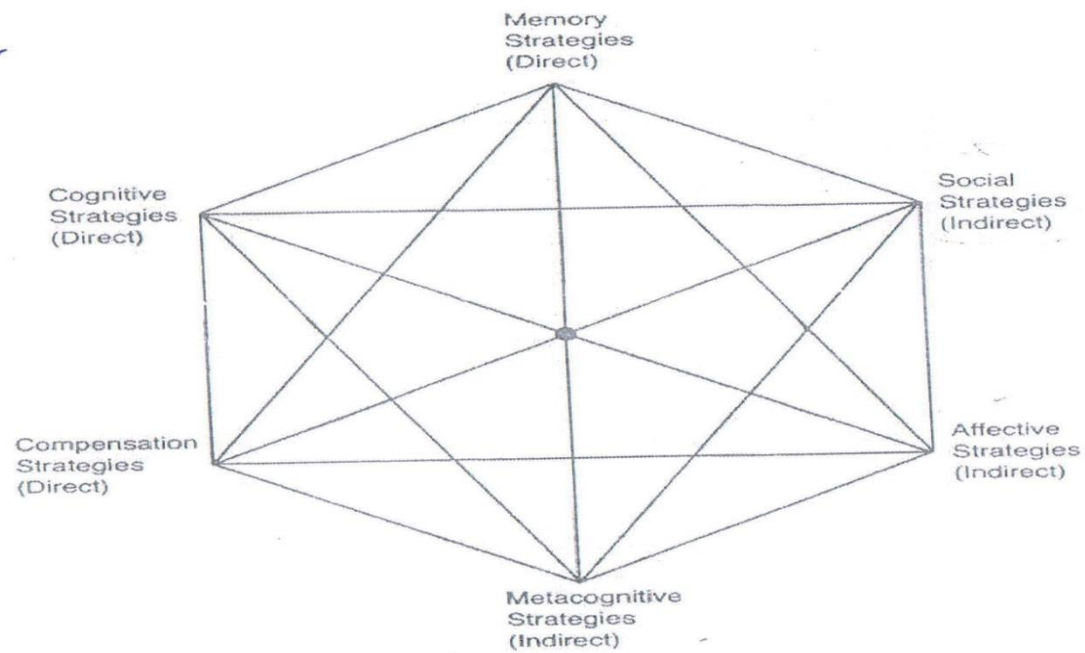


Figure III.2: Diagram of the strategy system (Oxford, 1990, p.16)

Direct strategies involve mental processing of the target language, and indirect strategies “provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy, and other means” (1990, p.151). Direct strategies include memory strategy which helps learners link one L2 item or concept with another to facilitate the process of remembering and retrieving new information (e.g. creating mental linkages, reviewing well, employing action, etc). Cognitive strategies, like note taking, summarizing, outlining and sintering facilitate the process of direct language use. Finally, compensation strategies, like gestures or pause words and using synonyms, help learners make up for missing knowledge.

Indirect strategies, on the other hand, are metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. Metacognitive strategies (e.g., gathering and organizing materials, arranging a schedule, evaluating task success, and monitoring mistakes) are used to manage the learning process. Affective strategies, which are mainly useful to regulate emotions, include identifying one’s mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good

performance, and using deep breathing or positive self talk. The last type of indirect strategies is the social ones. This latter involve learning with and from others (e.g., asking questions to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, and talking with a native speaking conversation partner).

III.2.5. Stern's (1992) classification of LLS

Language learning strategies have been classified into five groups by stern (**1992, in Zare 2012, p.166**)

1. Management and planning strategies are related with the learner's intention to direct his own learning. In other words, the learner must:
 - Decide what dedications to make to language learning,
 - Set reasonable objectives,
 - Decide on a suitable methodology, select proper resources monitor progress, and
 - Evaluate his success based on previously determined objectives and expectations.
2. Cognitive strategies are used by learners to improve their ability to learn, remember and solve problems when performing tasks. The following are some of these cognitive strategies:
 - Clarification/Verification
 - Guessing/Inductive inference
 - Deductive reasoning
 - Practice
 - Memorization
 - Monitoring

3. Communicative-Experiential strategies are verbal and non –verbal tools which are relied on to avoid interrupting the process of communication (paraphrasing, gesturing, and asking for repetition and explanation).
4. Interpersonal strategies are applied by foreign learners to get used to the culture of the target language. This can be done if learners communicate with native speakers and cooperate with them.
5. Affective strategies are instruments used by foreign learners to overcome the feelings of unfamiliarity and frustration towards the target language and its speakers.

III.2.6. O'Malley and Chamot's classification

Based on **Anderson's (1981)** model, **O'Mally** and his colleagues formulate strategies within a cognitive framework, and thus give them a more 'legitimate', theoretical status. The aim was to determine whether a strategy classification scheme proposed by cognitive psychology would be useful in SLA. In O'Malley et al schema, there are three major categories of learning strategies: cognitive, metacognitive and social/ affective strategies (See appendix number.)

We can see from the above classification of LLS taxonomies that there is a certain degree of overlapping. Various taxonomies of strategies (**Rubin's 1975**), **Oxford (1990)**, **O'Malley et al (1990)** reflect more or less the same categorizations of LLS without any radical changes. Moreover, the taxonomies proposed represent very general LLS. No study focused on the taxonomy of speaking strategies.

III.3. Speaking strategies research

III.3.1. Oxford's speaking strategies

As discussed previously in this chapter, Oxford divides learning strategies into direct and indirect ones. In her book “Language Learning Strategies. What Every Teacher should Know”, she has devoted two chapters to tackle the application of both direct and indirect strategies to the four language skills: listening, reading, speaking, and writing.

III.3.1.1. Direct speaking strategies

For the first type of direct strategies, i.e., memory strategies which are used to store and retrieve new information, she grouped them into four types: Creating mental linkage, Applying images and sounds, reviewing well, and employing action. Under the first group, placing new words into a context can be seen as a speaking strategy which means “...placing new words or expressions that have been heard or read into a meaningful context, such a spoken sentence, as a way of remembering it” (1990, p.60). The second group of memory strategies (i.e., applying images and sounds) includes representing sounds in memory as a speaking strategy where learners try to remember what they hear by making auditory rather than visual representation of sounds (using rhymes to remember new vocabulary heard). In other words, learners can link the new word with a familiar one from the new language, their mother language, or any other language. The third group of reviewing well memory strategies is based on a structured spiral way of remembering new material in the target language. The learner, for instance, keeps reviewing the new material at different intervals until it becomes automatic (it is reviewed repeatedly to retain it in long-term memory and retrieve it easily and automatically when needed).

Cognitive strategies, the second type of Oxford's direct strategies, are divided into practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing, and reasoning, and creating structural

for input and output. Repeating strategy (a practicing one) means saying the same thing several times, at a different speed (suggestopedia), imitation of native users of the language (to improve pronunciation, use of structures, vocabulary, idioms, intonation, gestures, and style). Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems strategy can be assisted with tapes or records (i.e. the learner records him/herself and then hears to compare his/her voice with a native speaker's voice). Recognizing and using formulas and patterns strategy can be applied to all language skills. Formulas are "unanalyzed expressions, while patterns have at least one slot that can be filled with an alternative word" (1990, p.72). Teachers should teach learners such expressions to increase their understanding and enhance fluency. The strategy of recombining is about building a meaningful sentence or longer expression by putting together known elements in new ways. Besides, practicing naturalistically concerns on using the language for actual communication.

The second type of cognitive strategies are receiving and sending messages. Learners can rely on printed resources (dictionaries, grammar books, travel guides and magazines) or non-printed resources (tapes, TV, videocassettes, radio, museums, and exhibitions among others) to understand a spoken message or to produce the target language (comprehension and production of speaking). The third type of cognitive strategies encourages learners to use logical thinking to understand and use the grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language (Analyzing and reasoning). Reasoning deductively falls under this type and has to do with the learners' reliance or prior knowledge of general rules to learn the meaning of what is heard. Sometimes the use of this strategy may result in overgeneralization errors like the application of the past-ed rule to all verbs. Translating strategy, which occurs mainly among beginners, can provide the wrong interpretation of target language material if word-for-word (verbatim) translation is used. Transferring, the last of the analyzing strategies, asks learners to directly apply previous knowledge to facilitate new knowledge in the new

language. Inappropriate transferring can be found if the language elements or concepts are not directly parallel and thus leads to inaccuracy.

Compensation strategies, the third type of direct strategies are used “to make up for an inadequate repertoire of grammar and, especially, of vocabulary” (1990, p.47). Guessing intelligently strategy is essential for listening and reading, whereas overcoming limitations strategy is developed for the speaking and writing skills. EFL learners make call of these strategies to stay in conversations long enough to get sustained practice. Code switching or switching to the mother tongue involves using the mother tongue for an expression without translating it. Learners may also ask for help in a conversation by hesitating or explicitly asking for the missing expression (Getting help strategy). Body language, like mime or gesture can be helpful to overcome communication breakdowns (Using mime or gesture strategy). Avoiding communication partially or totally strategy, though it keeps the learner emotionally protected, goes against the aim of speaking as much as often as possible. Learners may select the topic of conversation (selecting the topic strategy) for which they are interested and have the needed vocabulary luggage. Moreover, adjusting or approximating the message is another compensation strategy and it concerns omitting some items of information in a conversation and simplifying or precizing ideas.

During a conversation, learners may use coining words strategy (similar to translating strategy) to communicate a concept for which they do not have the right vocabulary (for instance, saying “night table instead of “bedside table). Using a circumlocution or synonym strategy is used to convey the intended meaning. By circumlocution, Oxford means “a roundabout expression involving several words to describe or explain a single concept” (1990, p.97).

III.3.1.2. Indirect speaking strategies

The second type of strategies of Oxford's taxonomy is known as "Indirect strategies". They are called so because "...they support and manage language learning without (in many instances) directly involving the target language" (1990, p.135).

Metacognitive strategies, or CAPE strategies, can be used to develop the speaking skill. Overlooking and linking with already known material strategy, under centering your learning category, involves teachers letting students express their own linkages between new material and what they already know, rather than being directive in helping them to learn. Vocabulary building is an important part of the overlooking /linking strategy. EFL learners may pay direct attention to the task in a global or general way or a selective attention where they focus on particular details. Teachers should encourage direct attention by providing interesting tasks, reducing classroom distractions, asking students to focus, and rewarding them. They can include tasks that require specific attention like filling out uncompleted charts or checklists.

The speech delay strategy is an automatic tool that learners make use of. It gives priority to listening comprehension before students feel ready to speak. The reason lies to the fact that listening is more rapidly developed than speaking and because speaking seems more threatening to many learners.

Arranging and planning your learning is the second category of metacognitive strategies. Teachers are asked to give their learners chances to talk a about their language learning problems (the finding out about language learning strategy). Organization is an important tool in language learning and it includes creating the right physical environment, scheduling well, and keeping a language learning notebook. Also, learners must set their long-range goals and short-range objectives for the speaking skill. Before performing a speaking task, learners are

advised to identify its purpose. The next strategy is planning for a language task where learners are asked to identify the general nature of the task, the specific requirements of the task, the resources available within them, and the need for further aids. Furthermore, language learners should not content themselves to classroom practice. Rather, they must look for additional chances to practice the language.

The third subcategory of metacognitive strategies has to do with evaluation. Self-monitoring and self-evaluating are two evaluation tools. The former entails learners' conscious decision to notice and correct their important speech errors; the latter includes self recording, face-to-face interaction and so on.

Affective strategies are subcategorized into: lowering your anxiety, encouraging yourself, and taking your emotional temperature. The first strategy is about effective anxiety reducers' techniques (Use of progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or mediation). Using music (before any stressful speaking task), and using laughter (which can be stimulated by classroom tasks as role plays and games). Self encouragement strategies help to keep the spirits up and persevere along the process of learning. They include making positive statements, taking risks wisely (which must be guided by good judgment rather than wild unnecessary ones), and rewarding oneself.

The third affective strategy, i.e. taking your emotional temperature, enables learners to notice their emotions, avert negative ones, and make the most of positive ones. Performance in the speaking skills is highly affected by the learners' physical state. Language learners need to listen to their bodies and pay attention to positive and negative sensations frequently. Using a check-list (or writing a language learning diary) can help learners assess their feelings and attitudes about language learning. Learners often need to discuss their language

learning difficulties and process with other people. Hence teachers should play a role in pushing learners to express their feelings about the language learning process.

The third type of indirect strategies is social ones. They are divided into: asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others. EFL learners may ask for correction of problems that can cause confusion or offense. Teacher should include activities that call for cooperative work like games, role plays, simulations drama activities, and structured communication exercises (cooperating with peers' strategy). Learners too can improve their communication if they cooperate with proficient users of the target language (cooperating with proficient users of the new language strategy). To achieve proficiency in the new language, EFL learners should develop a kind of cultural awareness of the foreign language they are acquiring through short cultural discussions into classroom activities and by comparing and contrasting behavior in their culture and the target one (developing cultural understanding). In addition, becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings can help EFL speakers understand more clearly what is communicated and suggest what to say and do.

III.3.2. Cohen's classification of speaking strategies

Cohen, Weaver, and Li (1996), in the Impact of Strategies- Based Instruction on Speaking a Foreign Language's research report, make a distinction between strategies for language learning and language use and define them as the steps or actions selected by learners to improve the learning of a foreign language, the use of a foreign language, or both. This definition encompasses those actions that are clearly intended for language learning, as well as those that may well lead to learning but which do not ostensibly include learning as the primary goal. **Anderson (2005, p.759)** regards Cohen's distinction as an important development that has contributed to the success of L2 learning strategy research.

Language learning strategies are specified by their explicit goal of helping learners' enhance their knowledge and understanding of the new language. Based on **Chamot** 1987 and **Oxford** 1990 classifications, Cohen et al divide language learning strategies into: cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective strategies. Cognitive strategies include the language learning strategies of identification, retention storage, or retrieval of words, phrases, and other elements of the target language. Metacognitive strategies deal with pre-planning and self-assessment, on-line planning, monitoring evaluation, and post-evaluation of language learning activities. Examples include organizing one's thoughts before speaking, reflecting on one's performance, or previewing the language materials for the day's lesson. Social strategies are actions that support interaction with other learners, a teacher or a native speaker. Asking questions for clarification and cooperating with others Affective strategies are used to regulate emotions, motivation and attitudes, for instance, strategies for self-reward and for reduction of anxiety.

Language use strategies actually involve retrieval strategies, rehearsal strategies, cover strategies, and communication strategies. The first three types are said to be performance strategies. Retrieval strategies are used to recall learned materials (similar to Oxford's memory strategies). Rehearsal strategies stand for rehearsing target language structures, such as through form-focused practice. Cover strategies (compensation strategies) are relied on by learners to cover their lack of language competence or create the impression that they have control over material when they do not. Simplification and complexification are examples of cover strategies.

Communication strategies, on the other hand, are strategies used to express message in the target language despite gaps in the new language knowledge. Such strategies may or may not have any impact on learning. The use of these strategies can result in utterances which are

simplified (e.g., through the shortening or avoidance of embedded clauses) or which are more complex (e.g., through the use of circumlocution).

Hsiao and Oxford (2002, in Anderson 2005, p.762) view that strategies for L2 learning and L2 use overlap considerably. Although Anderson has appreciated Cohen's distinction, he did not share the point that cognitive and metacognitive strategies are used just during the learning phase and not the use phase of language. He argues that after learning, "L2 learners free up cognitive capacity from thinking about the language to knowing how to use it. They are now in a position to implement more cognitive and metacognitive strategies" (**2005, p.762**).

III.4. Communication strategies

The notion of second language (L2) communication strategies raised first at the beginning of the 1970s, following the recognition that the mismatch between L2 speaker's linguistic resources and communicative intentions leads to a number of systematic language phenomena whose main function is to handle difficulties or breakdowns in communication.

Researchers proposed different definitions for the term "communication strategies". **Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976, in Rastegar and Gohari, 2016,p.402)** view them as systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language, in situations where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been formed. **Faerch and Kasper (1983, p.36, in Dornyei and Scott, 1997,p.177)** say that "CSs are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal". **Dornyei and Scott (1997, p.177)** regard these two definitions as traditional ones because they discuss just strategies used at the planning stage of a language production problem and not those meaning-negotiation and repair mechanisms. Tarone offered another conceptualization of CSs and see them as related to "a

mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared” (1980, p.420). This definition involves an interactional perspective. **Corder (1977, in Bialystock, 1990, p.3)** considers CS as “a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty”. For **Stern**, (1983, in Bialystok, 1990, p.3), these strategies are “techniques of coping with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly know second language”. **Canale (1983, in Dornyei and Scott, 1997, p.179)** suggests that CSs include any attempt to “enhance the effectiveness of communication (e.g. deliberately, slow and soft speech for rhetorical effect”. **Cohen, weaver and Li (1998, in Yaman, Irgin and Kavasogly, 2013, p.256)** believe that the use of strategies in communication raises Learners’ language awareness and solves the interlocutors’ potential communication problems. Dornyei and Scott’s definition, which is a covering of all L2 communication strategies discussed in literature, talks about speaker’s intentional attempt to cope with any language related problem during the course of communication (1997,p.179). **Nakatani (2010, p.118 in Frewan, 2015, p.14)** considers CSs as “any attempts by learners to overcome their difficulties and generate the target language to achieve communicative goals in actual interaction”. For him, these tools are relied on when the linguistic or sociolinguistic information are not shared between the interlocutors.

Bialystok (1990) and the Nijmegen group (i.e. Bongoerts, Kellerman, and poulisse) adopt a different approach to the conceptualization of communication strategies. Within a psychological scope, they argue that CSs should be regarded in the cognitive processes underlying the strategic language use, since they are inherently mental procedures (in **Dornyei and Scott 1997, p.180**). Unlike the traditional and the interactional perspectives, which were based on product-oriented research, the new analytic perspective recommended by Bialystok and Nijmegen focuses on the cognitive deep structure of strategic language behavior.

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p.181) include Yule and Tarone's summary of the duality of approaches taken by researchers (the "pros" following the traditional approach and the "Cons" taking a psychological stance). For them:

The taxonomic approach of the Pros focuses on the descriptions of the language produced by L2 learners, essentially characterizing the means used to accomplish reference in terms of observed forms. It is primarily a description of observed forms in L2 output, with implicit inferences being made about the differences in the psychological processing that produced them. The alternative approach of the Cons focuses on a description of the psychological processes used by L2 learners, essentially characterizing the cognitive decisions humans make in order to accomplish reference. It is primary a description of cognitive processing, with implicit references being made about the inherent similarity of linguistically different forms observed in the L2 output

In short, researchers, together with Bialystok's viewpoint, agree on the fact that CSs are important for language use and their role in second language communication is particularly salient. The diversity in the definitions of communication strategies has guided researchers to develop different taxonomies of CSs. These tools, however, are not only used to overcome breakdowns in communication, but also "enhance the effectiveness of communication" (**Savignon, 1983, p.11**). This point is under consideration in the next section.

III.4.1. Taxonomies of CSs

Despite the diversity in CSs' taxonomies and classifications, **Bialystok (1990, p.61)** regards them as overlapping in the various overall categories. These different taxonomies of CSs which were summarized by **Scott and Dornyei (1997)** in their article "Communication Strategies in a Second Language" are found in **appendix B**.

III.5. Strategy instruction

Strategy training is a learner based approach. Strategy-based instruction has been referred as “strategy training”, “strategies instruction”, or “learner training” (**Chamot and Rubin 1994, p.771 in Cohen et al. 1996, p.06**). **Cohen et al (1996, p.06)** claim that strategies-based instruction has two components.”(1) Students are explicitly taught how, when, and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning and language use tasks, and (2) Strategies are integrated into everyday class materials, and may be explicitly or implicitly embedded into the language tasks.

The primary goal of strategy-based instruction is to help learners become “better language learners”. Works on “good languages learner” show that strategies used by effective learners can be trained for less effective ones to increase their learning efficiency (**Naiman et al 1978; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975**). **Chamot (2008, p.266)** claims that the way learners use LSs determines whether they are useful. Or as **Vann and Abraham (1990, p.190 in Richards and Lockhart (1996, p.65)** point out that unsuccessful learners “appear o be active strategy-users, but they often failed to apply strategies appropriately to the task at hand”. **Cohen et al (1996, p.06)** add that strategies based instruction aims to assist learners in becoming more responsible for their efforts in learning and using the new language.

Oxford (1990,p.201) claims that the scope of strategy training should not be restricted to teach language learning strategies but it should expand to deal “with feelings and beliefs about taking on more responsibility and about the role change implied by the use of learning strategies”. **Nunan (1996, p.41)** suggests that language classrooms must engage in teaching language content and developing learning processes. **Mc Donough (1999,p.13)** writes on the effectiveness of strategy training that it is not “ universally successful, but the latest research is showing that, in certain circumstances and modes, particularly when incorporated into the

teacher's normal classroom behavior, and thus involving teacher training as well as learner training, success is demonstrable".

Oxford and Leaver (1996, p.227, in Abd El Ali, 2002, p.78) summarize the whole issues involved in strategy training as follows:

The goal of strategy training is not help students become more self-directed, autonomous, and effective learners through the improved use of language learning strategies. Strategy instruction teaches students how to be better learners in several specific ways (1) identifying and improving strategies that are currently used by the individuals, (2) identifying strategies that the individual might not be using but that might be helpful for the task at hand, and then teaching those strategies, (3) helping students learn to transfer strategies across language tasks and even across subject fields, (4) aiding students in evaluating the success of their use of particular strategies with specific tasks; and (5) assisting subjects in gaining learning style flexibility by teaching them strategies that are instinctively used by students with other learning styles

In an important critique of strategy training, however, Rees-Miller asks classroom teacher to exercise caution in instituting learner training. For her, a number of factors should be considered by classroom teachers who aim to facilitate independent learning on the part of their students. They include learners' cultural backgrounds, age, educational background, life experience, affective factors, and the learners' and teachers' beliefs about language learning (1993, pp.684-686).

Teachers pay attention to the following questions:

1. What is the evidence that use of a particular strategy causes more efficient learning than not using that strategy?
2. How can a particular strategy be translated into a specific teachable behavior?
3. Will that behavior prove useful for all language learners or only for some?
4. Are the students ready and willing to try the behavior?
5. What factors will influence the effectiveness of learner training in general and in specific instances, and have these factors been taken into account in planning the training. (1993, p.687).

Chamot and Rubin (1994, in Benson 2001,p.145) respond to Rees-Miller's judgment and cite a number of research studies that demonstrate correlation between strategy use and improved language learning performance, without denying the influence that Miller's variables may bring on the effectiveness of particular strategies. Moreover, **Oxford (1990, p.202)** claims that language teachers have to expand their knowledge of LLSs if their aim is to train learners well. They have to be open-minded and accept their new roles as facilitators and language learning "expert", while learners act as the "expert" on themselves.

Current interest in strategy training calls for teachers' and learners' collaboration to develop effective approaches to learning. **Rubin (1985, in Richards and Lockhart 1996, p.66)** points out that through strategy training learners gain better understanding of their learning strategies and they can manage them more efficiently, thanks to which they can expect to:

- Gain insights into their own approach to learning.
- Learn to choose strategies appropriate to a task and learning purpose.
- Learn to use these strategies in a classroom, self study, or job situation.
- Learn to use strategies specific to reading, listening, and conversation.

- Be able to define strategies for improving memory for language learning.
- Learn how to effectively transfer knowledge about language and communication from one language to another.
- Learn to use resources wisely.
- Be able to deal more effectively with errors.

III.6. The teachability of communication strategies

As far as CSs are concerned, there has been a great debate about their teaching. A number of researchers (Kellerman, Bialystok, Canale and Swain...) did not appreciate the idea of teaching CSs. Kellerman, for instance, argues that there is no need to teach CSs since strategic competence develops in the speaker's L1 and is transferable to his L2 use.

He concludes "there is no justification for providing training compensatory strategies in the classroom... Teach the learners more language and let the strategies look after themselves" (1991, p.158). Bialystok (1990, p.147) shares the same view as Kellerman and sees that learners wider knowledge about the language will open the way for more possibilities for the system to be flexible and adjust itself to fit learners' needs. She adds "what one must teach students of a language is not strategy, but language". Canale and Swain (1980, in Dornyei, 1995, p.61) also claim that CSs are acquired in real-life communication and not developed through classroom practice.

On the other hand, researcher, like Brooks, 1992; Chen, 1990; Faerch and Kasper, 1983a, 1986; and Willems, 1987, recommend the training of CSs. Corder says that "If one wishes at this stage of the art to consider the pedagogical implications of studying communication strategies, then clearly it is part of good language teaching to encourage resource expansion strategies and, as we have seen, successful strategies of communication may eventually lead to language learning" (1983 in Al Saedi, 2012, p.39). Faerch a Kasper

(1986 in Al Saedi 2012, p.40) propose three types of activities to promote the activation of CSs, these are:

1. Communication games with full visual contact between the participants and full possibilities for immediate feedback.
2. Communication games with no visual contact between the participants but still full possibilities for immediate feedback (e.g. stimulating a telephone conversation)
3. Monologue with limited or no possibilities for using visual support and with no possibilities for obtaining immediate feedback (e.g. two minute talk).

Willems (1987, p.351) claims that language learners should be given the chance to develop a range of CSs.

III.7. Models of language learning strategies

Over the years a number of models have been designed with the aim of instructing learners in the use of language learning strategies.

III.7.1. Chamot et al metacognitive model

Chamot and his colleagues have proposed a metacognitive model for learning strategy instruction that includes four recursive (rather than sequential) processes: planning, monitoring, problem-solving, and evaluating. This instructional model for strategy training is known as CALLA which stands for the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach. In this approach, highly explicit instruction in applying strategies to learning tasks is gradually faded so that learners can begin to assume greater responsibility in selecting and applying their own preferred learning strategies.

1. Preparation. In this stage, the teacher identifies students' current learning strategies for familiar tasks, such as recalling their prior knowledge, previewing the key vocabulary and concepts to be introduced to the lesson;
2. Presentation. In this stage, the teacher models, names, explains new strategy; asks students if and how they have used it, such as selective attention, self-monitoring, inference, elaboration, imagery and note-taking strategies;
3. Practice. In this stage, the students practice new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, the teacher fades reminders to encourage independent strategy use by being asked to check their language production, plan to develop an oral or written report or classify concepts;
4. Evaluation. In this phase, the students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice, determining the effectiveness of their own learning by summarizing or giving a self-talk, either cooperatively or individually;
5. Expansion activities. In this phase, the students transfer the strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies and integrate them into their existing knowledge frameworks.
6. Assessment. In this stage, the teacher assesses the students' use of strategies and impact on performance.

III.7.2. Pearson and Dole's Model

The explicit comprehension instruction model proposed by **Pearson and Dole (1988, p.8)** starts by direct explanation on the part of the instructor of WHAT, HOW, WHY, and WHEN a given strategy ought to be used. Then, under teacher guided practice, students begin to take responsibility of task completion gradually until they can do it on their own. At last, teachers will ask students to apply their strategies on different learning situations.

4. Modeling: Teachers emphasize WHAT the skill or strategy is and HOW to apply the skill/strategy to a given learning selection. To do this, teachers begin by modeling for students how to apply the skill/strategy.
5. Guided practice: Here teachers and students work together to figure out HOW they went about applying the skill.
6. Consolidation: Teachers then help students see WHAT the skill or strategy is and HOW to apply it.
7. Independent practice: In this step, students complete a task where they assume near total responsibility for determining what the skill/strategy is and how to apply it.
8. Application: In this step, teachers ask students to apply the skill/strategy, and students move from workbook pages to real authentic practices.

III.7.3. Oxford's strategy training model

Rebecca Oxford (1990, pp. 204-208) designs an eight-step model, where teachers have to assume that they have already assessed their students' current learning strategies. She claims that instructors are not asked to keep the same order of the steps, but change it to suit the learning situation.

1. Determine the learners' needs and the time available: the instructor has first to start by determining his students' needs and time available for the activity.
2. Select strategies well: selected strategies has to suit students' needs, are useful for most learners, are transferrable to other tasks, and are valuable and require a bit more effort.
3. Consider integration of strategy training: teachers are advised to integrate strategy training with the tasks, objectives, and materials in the regular language training program.

4. Consider motivational issues: the instructor has to consider the kind of motivation he has to build in his training program (i.e. giving grades or partial course credit for the attainment of a given strategy).
5. Prepare materials and activities: teachers have to select language materials and activities that are interesting to learners' needs, and even may give them the choice to select their own language materials and activities.
6. Conduct completely informed training: during the strategy training, the instructor has to make sure that he fully informs the learner why the strategy is useful, how it can be transferred to different tasks, and how learners can evaluate the success of the strategy.
7. Evaluate the strategy training: teacher's as well as learners' own comments are part of the training itself.
8. Revise the strategy training: teachers have to make possible revisions for their materials and steps they followed along the strategy training.

III.7.4. Grenfell and Harris's model

Grenfell and Harris (2002, pp. 102-103) suggest a cycle of strategy instruction that can be used for communication strategies.

1. Awareness-raising: learners are given a communicative task.
2. Modeling. The teacher models, discusses the value of new strategy, makes checklist of strategies for later use.
3. General practice. The students practice new strategies with different tasks.
4. Action planning. The students set goals and choose strategies to attain those goals.
5. Focused practice: The students carry out action plan using selected strategies; the teacher fades prompts so that students use strategies automatically.

6. Evaluation. The teacher and students evaluate success of action plan; set new goals; cycle begins again.

Conclusion

A great number of researchers in the field of language teaching and learning (**Rubin, 1975; Filmore, 1982; O'Malley et al, 1985; Ehrman and Oxford, 1995; Green and Oxford, 1995, Griffiths, 2003; and others**) argue that teaching learning strategies have a big role in enhancing EFL learners' learning autonomy. Such tools are used to facilitate the whole process of learning, from obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information. Though researchers designed general taxonomies on language learning strategies, few of them (**Oxford, 1990, and Cohen et al, 1996**) worked on strategies specific to the speaking skill. EFL instructors are advised to teach learning strategies explicitly by explaining, modeling, practicing, and then evaluating learners' performances. Such evaluation can follow the traditional way of teacher taking the whole responsibility of evaluating his learners' performances, or he may, for instance, involve them in the assessment process. This point will be discussed in details in the next chapter.

Chapter Four

Introduction

In educational systems, assessment is an unavoidable ingredient because of the influence it has got on learning. It's a critical activity in any instructional operation. It has crucial roles in enhancing learners' gains and teaching and learning quality in general. **Erwin (1991, in Iraj, Enayat and Momeni 2016: 717)** views assessment as a continuous process of learning and development.

In a learner- centered methodology, where teachers look for a more meaningful, varied, interactive and ongoing form of assessment, students are encouraged to engage in the assessment process and take part in. unlike traditional assessment, where teachers have been charged with that responsibility, alternative assessment pushes learners to develop the capacity to make judgments about both their own work and that of others in order to become effective continuing learners and practitioners.

This kind of assessment has increasingly gained attention in L2 speaking. As said previously, oral language is regarded as the centerpiece of both language learning and academic learning and a central tool in teaching and assessment in the classroom.

Oral work not only leads to new learning; as a technique of revision it also reinforces the initial learning and prevents it from slipping away. Oral work can be used as an evaluation of pupil progress when teachers intervene in group work and become consultants. It can precede any subject matter to reveal students' levels, interests and expectations, putting teachers in touch with the reality of their pupils (Freire 1972 in Corson 1988).

One of the areas of research within alternative assessment is the use of peer assessment and its effects on enhancing the speaking ability of ESL/EFL learners. The main concern of this chapter is to acknowledge the importance of involving students in the learning process to maximize the opportunities of reaching autonomy. For that reason, we will start by defining peer assessment. The next point will shed light on the differences between traditional and alternative assessment. As with most approaches, peer assessment has a number of benefits and problems and this will be the concern of the coming point. As far as our topic of research is concerned, we will narrow the scope of peer assessment and limit it to the speaking skill .i.e., how do EFL learners assess their peers' oral performance during speaking tasks?

IV.1. Reasons for alternative ways of assessment

Falchikov (2005) devotes a whole chapter in her book “Improving assessment through student involvement” to answer the question: what’s wrong with traditional assessment methods?

Serafini (2000, in Falchikov, 2005, p.32) criticizes traditional assessment as being assessment as measurement because it relies on a limited number of strategies and techniques like traditional unseen examinations and essay-type continuous assessments or multiple-choice questions which prove to be imponderable. **Race (2002)**, **Donovan et al (2000)**, and **Burke (1969, in Falchikov, 2005, p.33)** talk about unreliability and bias in teacher and examiner marking. **Birenbaum (1996, p. 5)** sees that, besides the above disadvantages, traditional assessment is about teaching to the test or teaching the test. **Rowntree (1987, in Falchikov, 2005, p. 36)** claims that students regard learning and education as an instrument to get their certificate. This fact leads to lack of interest and motivation among learners who are supposed to influence their learning rather than being passive consumers. **Docky et al (1999, in Falchikov, 2005, p. 39)** see that traditional measuring instruments fail to assess

higher cognitive skills, since they rely heavily on multiple-choice questions which test only recall and recognition. **Kibler (1993)** and **Caruana et al (2002, in Falchikov, 2005, p. 40)** argue that there is a link between anxiety or tenseness and academic dishonesty. Learners’ pressures to get good grades push them to cheat.

Dissatisfaction with existing testing has given rise to proposals for new assessment alternatives that may better capture significant and lasting educational outcomes.

IV.2. Traditional and alternative assessment

Assessment in education is usually defined as “the systematic process of gathering and discussing information in order to document student learning outcomes and the level of student achievement” (**Letina, 2015, p. 138**). A number of researchers (**Black et al., 1998; Boud, 1990; Ramsden, 1992; Scouller, 1998; Thomas & Bain, 1984**) agree on the fact that student behavior and learning are influenced by assessment. This influence can occur on different levels (pre, during, or post effects of assessment) as shown in the figure below.

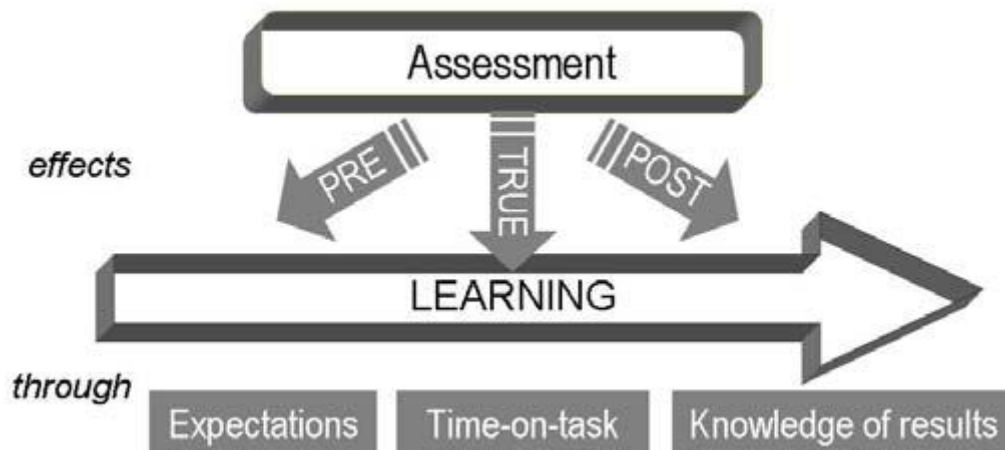


Figure IV.1: Effects of assessment on learning (**Gielen, 2007,p. 19**)

Formative assessment, assessment for learning, or learning-oriented assessment are notions that commonly contend the use of assessment information to make beneficial changes

in instruction and learning. **Herman, Aschbacher, and Winter (1992, p.6)** view that alternative testing examines the processes and the products of learning as they “ challenge students to explore the possibilities inherent in open-ended, complex problems, and to draw their inferences” **Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall,** and **William (2003, p. 2)** agree that assessment for learning is “ ... informal, embedded in all aspects of teaching and learning” , and that an assessment activity becomes formative when the aim is “ ... to adapt the teaching work to meet learning needs”

Brown (2003, p. 6) defines this type of assessing as

evaluating students in the process of forming their competencies and skills with the goal of helping them to continue that growth process. The key to such formation is the delivery (by the teacher) and internalization (by the student) of appropriate feedback on performance, with an eye toward the future continuation (or formation) of learning.

Morgan, Dunn, O’Reilly, and **Parry (2005, p. 18)** believe that formative assessment aims at diagnosing student difficulties, measuring improvement over time, and providing information to inform students about how to improve their learning.

Nancy and Frey (2007, p. 4) regard this type of assessment as ongoing one because teachers rely on it “ to improve instructional methods and provide student feedback throughout the teaching and learning process”.

Gipps and Murphy (1994, in East, 2016, p. 31) claim that assessment has two goals: “a managerial and accountability goal” and “ a professional and learning goal” the first one is known as summative where learners are assessed at the end of a course or a series of lessons to measure their capability as far as the goals of the programme are concerned. The second

goal “ formative assessment” sits within the teaching and learning process and builds within it “ opportunities for feedback and feed forward”.

Goh and Burns (2012, p. 192-3) sees formative assessment as informal. She claims that teachers can adjust topics, tasks, texts, and activities used during and after the assessment process. Summative assessment, however, is more formal because it is concerned with rating scales, tests, or descriptors of speaking competency required within the program.

Nancy and Frey (2007, p.4) summarize the major differences between formative and summative assessment in the following table.

	Formative assessment	Summative assessment
Purpose	To improve instruction and provide student feedback	To measure student competency
When administered	Ongoing throughout unit	End of unit or course
How students use results	To self-monitor understanding	To gauge their progress toward course or grade level goals and benchmarks
How teachers use results	To check for understanding	For grades, promotion

Table IV.1: Comparison of formative and summative assessment (**Nancy and Frey, 2007,p. 4**)

Strijbos, Sluijsmans (20012, p. 3) view assessment culture, or formative assessment, as contextualized and it focuses on cognitive, social, affective, and metacognitive aspects of learning.

After this brief review of the formative type of assessment, we will now tackle the common characteristics that make alternative types of assessment special and different .i.e. what is it that makes alternative types of assessment, while other types of assessment are called traditional ones.

IV.3. Alternative assessment Vs Traditional assessment

Herman, Aschbacher, and Winters (1992, p. 6) argue that alternative assessments share a common vision in that they:

- Ask students to perform, create, produce, or do something,
- Tap higher-level thinking and problem-solving skills,
- Use tasks that represent meaningful instructional activities,
- Invoke real-world applications,
- People, not machines, do the scoring, using human judgment,
- Require new instructional and assessment roles for teachers.

The results of alternative assessment, in this sense, should reflect the skills that learners exhibit in a situation and will transfer to other situations and problems. In other words, it is about “ learning by using evidence about where students have reached, in relation to the goals of their learning, to plan the next steps in their learning and know how to take them” **(Gardner, 2006, p. 104)**

Huerta-Macias (1995, in Brown and Hudson, 1998, p. 80) says that alternative assessments:

1. Are non-intrusive in that they extend the day-to-day classroom activities already in a place in a curriculum
2. Allow students to be assessed on what they normally do in class every day
3. Provide information about both the strengths and weaknesses of students
4. Are multiculturally sensitive when properly administered

Brown and Hudson (1998, p. 80) add to the above lists of characteristics the following two points that work for both language teachers and testers.

- Focus on processes as well as products
- Encourage public disclosure of standards and criteria.

Falchikov (2005, p. 82) sums up the differences between traditional assessment and alternative assessment in the following table:

Traditional assessment	Alternative assessmen
<p>-Propositional knowledge likely to be assessed</p> <p>-Narrow range of methods used</p> <p>-Methods do not always reflect curriculum aims</p> <p>-Assessment separated from teaching and learning</p> <p>-Assessment methods opaque. e.g. criteria not</p>	<p>-Procedural knowledge assessed</p> <p>-Wide range of methods used</p> <p>-Methods try to reflect curriculum aims</p> <p>-Assessment integrated with teaching and learning</p> <p>-Methods aim for transparency. Criteria</p>

<p>made clear</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Learners lack power -Learners can avoid taking responsibility for own learning -Reliability and validity a major concern -Methods not scientifically based -Methods hard to implement in a rapidly expanding HE system -Often gives rise to negative feelings that can persist over years -Has negative consequences 	<p>explicit</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Learners have degrees of power -Learners encouraged to take responsibility for learning -Reliability and validity a concern -Some methods based on, or derived from, theory - Use of some varieties stimulated by expansion -Negative feelings generally transitory -Few negative consequences reported so far
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Table IV.2: Characteristics of traditional and alternative assessments **Falchikov (2005, p. 82)**

Letina (2015, p. 138) collects the most important features of the advanced concept of assessment and its distinction from the traditional view of assessment in the following table:

Traditional concept of assessment	Advanced concept of assessment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The emphasis is on summative assessment in a formal setting, which is used as the main or only form of assessment -The assessment is usually carried out at the 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The emphasis is on formative and informal assessment

<p>end of the educational period or school year</p> <p>-The assessment is based on standards. It compares student's scores with the scores of other students in order of their ranking</p> <p>-The emphasis is on content knowledge and reproduction of factual knowledge</p>	<p>-The assessment is a continuous process and integrated within the process of teaching and learning</p> <p>-The assessment is based on predetermined criteria. Teachers give students appropriate feedback in order to improve their learning process</p> <p>-The emphasis is on the learning process and the development of students' competences</p>
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Table IV.3: The traditional and advanced concepts of assessment in education. **Letina (2015, p.138)**

Anderson (1998, in Letina 2015, p.141) compares between traditional and alternative assessment as follows:

Traditional assessment	Alternative assessment
<p>-Assumes knowledge has a single (universally) consensual meaning</p> <p>-Treats learning as a passive process (the emphasis is on learning something, rather than on learning how to do something)</p> <p>-Separates the learning process from the final product (evaluate only the final product)</p>	<p>-Assumes knowledge has multiple meanings</p> <p>-Treats learning as an active process (the emphasis is on learning how to do something)</p> <p>-Emphasizes the learning process and the final product of learning (taking into account</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The focus is on the use of pieces of information (using lower levels of reviews) -Assumes the purpose of assessment is to document and monitor student learning and to classify students by their scores -Students’ cognitive, affective and conative abilities are separate (emphasis on the cognitive dimension) -Embraces a hierarchical model of power and control (students do not participate in decision making) -Perceives learning as an individual enterprise (student should independently solve a given task) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> what, why, how students learn) -The focus is on research, i.e. developing the ability to solve real problems -Assumes the purpose of assessment is to facilitate learning -Recognizes a connection between students’ cognitive, affective and conative abilities. -Embraces a shared model of power and control (students participate in decision-making) -Perceives learning as a collaborative process (teacher and student are classmates)
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Table IV.4: Comparison of philosophical beliefs and theoretical assumption of alternative and traditional assessment (**Anderson, 1998**)

IV.4. Benefits of involving learners in assessment

Many practitioners and assessment specialists call for the active engagement of learners in the process of of language assessment and look for ways to do that. **Nunan (1988, in Ekbatani, 200,p. 01)** , for instance, claimed that “ in a learner-centered curriculum model both teachers and learners need to be involved in evaluation”. **Le Blanc and Painchaud (1985, in Ekbatani, 2000,p.01)** view that “ being part of the completed learning cycle should

imply being involved in the assessment process, since evaluation is now recognized as a component in the educational process”. Similarly, **Falchikov (2005, pp.114-16)** summarizes the benefits of involving learners in assessment under different categories (**See Appendix C**).

IV.5. Peer assessment

As stated earlier in this chapter, learner-centered approaches led the field of language testing to a shift from teacher-centered testing to student-centered assessment, where the major educational aim is to develop autonomous learners. **Powell (1981, p.209)** sees that:

The promotion of independent learning is ... central to the whole enterprise of higher education because the intellectual powers which it seeks to foster cannot (logically cannot) be exercised except in an independent mode. Critical thinking, judgment, creativeness, initiative, interpretative skills, hypothesis formulation and problem-solving capacities can only be made manifest by someone who is operating independently”

In line with new developments in language teaching and assessment, which try to increase learner autonomy, peer assessment is gaining momentum and playing more significant role in language teaching and learning.

IV.5.1. Peer assessment definitions

Topping (1998, p. 250) sees peer assessment as “ an arrangement in which individual consider the amount, level, value, worth, quality, or success of the products or outcomes of learning of peers of similar status”. In other words, peer assessment asks learners to evaluate their classmates as they complete a task of a similar nature. Such judgment is not done randomly, but has to be performed using relevant criteria which are designed by both teachers and learners. Peer assessment is viewed by **Roberts (2006, p.80)** as “the process of having

the readers critically reflect upon, and perhaps suggest grades for the learning of their peers”. **Strijbos** and **Sluismans (2010, p. 265)** declare peer assessment as “ an educational arrangement where students judge a peer’s performance quantitatively and/ or qualitatively and which stimulates students to reflect, discuss and collaborate”.

Gielen (2007, p.28) argues that peer assessment is not an assessment method like essay writing, portfolio assessment, and short answer test because it can be used with all these assessment methods since “ the only fixed feature is that peers take the role of the assessor”.

Lim (2007, p. 169) views peer assessment as a measurement that help learners “ to monitor their learning progress and/or to judge their language proficiency/ability”.

Kollar and Fischer (**2010, pp.344-5**) contend that peer assessment is “ an important component in the design of learning environments implementing a more participatory culture of learning”.

IV.5.2. Characteristics of peer assessment

Topping (1998, p. 250-52) develops a typology of peer assessment that incorporates a number of variables in different types of peer assessment (**See Appendix D**).

Peer assessment can be organized in different ways and it’s up to teachers to select the appropriate combination of characteristics that would be likely to yield the best results.

Van den Berg, Admiraal, and Pilot (2006, pp. 21-22) divide Topping’s typology into four clusters, each of which contains a number of variables and label them as: peer assessment as an assessment instrument, mode of interaction, composition of feedback group, and external factors. They explain:

Cluster 1 (variables 1–6) refers to the function of peer assessment as an assessment instrument. The focus can be formative or summative, resulting in

a grade or a qualitative report (product/output). Peer assessment is meant to fulfill an additional role or as a substitute of the assessment by the teacher (relation to staff assessment). Cluster 2 concerns variables of interaction (7–9). The direction of the assessment can be oneway or two-way. Two-way assessment means that assessors and assessees in turns change roles in the small feedback group. By one-way assessment is meant that the assessor is to be assessed by students other than the one(s) he has assessed (directionality). The outcome of the assessment may be presented in plenary session, or in the feedback group (privacy). The assessment can be done partly or entirely out of class (place), and with or without face-to-face contact (contact). Cluster 3 refers to the composition of the feedback group (variables 10–13). The size of the peer groups can vary from two to more participants. All the students can have studied the same materials and have written about the same topic, or each can have a different topic. The feedback groups can be formed at random, or according to a plan in which the differences between students are used (ability). The students can individually assess the products of their fellow students in the feedback group, or for example first have to reach consensus about their judgments before communicating it to the assessed (constellation assessors and assessed). Peer assessment can be carried out in and out of class (place). Cluster 4 regards the variables concerning requirement and reward (14–17). Students may or may not be free to decide if they want to use peer assessment (requirement); the teacher can decide to encourage participation by giving course credits (reward).

Topping (1998, pp. 265-67) further summarizes organizational factors that should be taken into consideration when implementing peer assessment. These factors are:

1. Clarifying expectations, objectives and accessibility;
2. Developing and clarifying assessment criteria;
3. Providing quality training;
4. Specifying activities;
5. Monitoring the process and coaching;
6. Moderating validity and reliability;
7. Evaluating and providing feedback.

Gielen (2007, pp. 88-89), in an attempt to extend Topping's typology, explores literature aiming to find extra variables that were necessary to describe peer assessment practices. She calls her framework "An inventory of diversity of peer assessment" instead of "typology" because this latter encompasses variables which are separated and each variable has a list of "multiple choice" options associated with it. In the case of Gielen's framework, the old and new variables are in a continuum:

IV.5.3. Advantages and drawbacks of peer assessment

Involvement of students in peer assessment is about engaging them to make judgments of works done by their peers. The concept of peer assessment stems from philosophies of active learning (e.g. **Piaget, 1971**) and social constructivism (e.g. **Vygotsky, 1962**) which emphasized that learning is not an individual activity, but rather a cognitive activity that the nature of learning shifts the focus on learning from individual to the interaction within a social context. Thereby, peer interaction is cardinal to the improvement of students' learning because it allows students to construct knowledge through social sharing and interaction (**Falchikov and Goldfinch, 2000; Liu et al, 2001; Bijaini et al, 2013**)

Peer assessment, as an assessment tool, is regarded as important in enhancing the process of learning English. Some researchers negatively evaluate its use in learning and prefer traditional-teacher feedback. But other researchers have claimed that peer assessment is useful. The present point seeks to tackle the main points in favor and against the role of peer assessment in learning.

IV.5.3.1. Advantages

Karaca (2009, pp. 123-4) summarizes the potential advantages of peer assessment in the following points:

- Gives students a sense of ownership of the assessment process and improves their motivation.
- Encourages a sense of ownership of the process, so students are committed to the outcomes rather than dismissing them as the ramblings of an inadequate or biased external evaluator.
- Stimulates learning.
- Enables assessment to become part of the learning process rather than an adjunct to it.
- Encourages students to take responsibility of their own learning, developing them as autonomous learners.
- Helps students become more autonomous, better able to recognize the strength and weaknesses of their own work.
- Encourages students to critically analyze work done by others, rather than simply seeing a grade.
- Develop self-assessment abilities.

- Encourages deep rather than surface learning.
- Helps students to become more autonomous, responsible and involved.
- Helps clarify assessment criteria.
- Reduces the marking load on the lecturer.
- Always provides high quality feedback.
- Gives students a wider range of feedback.
- Several groups can be run at the same time as not all the groups require the lecturer's presence.
- More closely parallels possible career situations where judgment is made by a group.
- Develops a whole range of transferable skills, valuable to students during their course and in subsequent employment and facilitates lifelong learning.

Azarnoosh (2013, p.8) reported a positive attitude towards peer assessment and concluded that the integration of peer assessment in our classes makes both learners and teachers regard assessment as a shared responsibility, as it “creates opportunities for interaction, and increases objectivity in assessment”. **Saito (2008, in Azarnoosh, 2013, p.8)** thinks that “peer assessment encourages reflective learning through observing others’ performances and becoming aware of performance criteria”. **Nilson (2003, p.34)** finds that peer assessment develops critical thinking among learners, communication, lifelong learning, and collaborative skills. The direct involvement in the learning process enhances students’ sense of ownership, responsibility and motivation (**Sivan, 2000, in Peng, 2010, p.90**). **Li (2001, in Peng, 2010, p.90)** argues that peer assessment becomes very useful “because it can prevent

the effect of peer-raters; in other words, it is a good way to distinguish individual contributions from group products”.

Peer evaluation is not just a meaning learning activity but also “provides opportune feedback” (Kishwar et al, 2018, p272). Long (2009, p.29) , in a study to explore the effectiveness of self/peer assessment in teaching and learning on 11 higher education students who were studying in a further education college for a foundation degree in early childhood studies, finds that students become more reflective, self-critical, and more confident. Moreover, peer assessment is seen to enhance future learning and prepare learners for their future life “Future-learning oriented assessment engages students in the assessment process to improve both short- and long- term outcomes by requiring students to make sophisticated judgments about their own learning, and that of their peers” (Thomas, Martin, and Pleasants, 2010, p. 1)

Spiller (2012, pp. 10-12) claims that peer assessment is a useful tool for the following reasons:

- -Peer assessment builds on a natural process of development from early life (learning from others);
- -Encourages collaborative learning through consideration of what constitutes good work;
- -Aligns with and supports tasks encouraging peer learning and collaboration;
- -Through peer assessment, learners gain a more sophisticated understanding of the gaps in their learning and gain a better grasp of the learning process;
- -Enhances conversation around the assessment process;

- -Heightens learners' own capacity for judgment and making intellectual choices;
- -Learners get a wider range of ideas about their work, after receiving feedback, to promote development and improvement;
- -Helps to lessen the power imbalance between teachers and learners and enhances the learners' status in the learning process;
- -Encourages learners to clarify, review, and edit their ideas;
- -Teaches learners how to receive and give feedback;
- -Learners become active members in a community of practice.

Van Lehn, Chi, Baggett, and Murray (1995, in Topping, 1998, p. 254) view that peer assessment involve learners in cognitively demanding activities of reviewing, summarizing, clarifying, giving feedback, diagnosing misconceived knowledge, identifying missing knowledge, and considering deviations from the ideal. Such activities may help to reinforce and deepen understanding in the assessor. In other words, learners operate cognitively at an evaluative level and pose metacognitive questions.

Topping (1998, p.255) mentions also the notion of “norm referencing” which enables “a student to locate himself or herself in relation to the performance of peers and to prescribed learning targets and deadlines”. He adds that peer assessment immediately reduces cumulative error and produces higher rates of productive time on tasks: “Imperfect feedback from a fellow student provided almost immediately may have much more impact than more perfect feedback from a tutor four weeks later” (**Gribbs et al., 2004, p. 19**). As far as affective effects are concerned, **Topping (1998, p. 256)** continues claiming that peer assessment might increase “variety and interest, activity and interactivity, identification and bonding, self-confidence, and empathy for others”. Peer assessment can trigger learners’

emotional defense system. By evaluating their peers' work, learner assessor may hide his/her weaknesses and doubts for the teacher. In that case, "peer feedback may by-pass some of these difficulties since it is less power-sensitive" (Gielen, 2007, p.53). Furthermore, peer assessment is a social gain, as it teaches learners how to develop teamwork skills, how to give and accept criticism, and justify one's position. Fry (1990, in Topping 1998, p.256) talks about the systematic benefits of peer assessment where learners become more aware about institutional assessment processes and develop a sense of confidence towards them. An extra advantage, as Gielen (2007, p.53) considers, is about individualization of feedback. Contrary to staff assessment that may provide collective feedback, peer assessment allows assessors to organize feedback individually.

Lapham and Webster (1999, p.187) summarize learners' perception of the benefits of peer assessment practice as follows:

- It provided valuable practice in presenting and assessing leading to increased confidence.
- Assessing other presentations helped reflect on characteristics of a good presentation.
- Doing the presentation gave students a better understanding of subject matter as assessing a presentation helped increase concentration.
- It gave a sense of control and a say in the module.
- The absence of a tutor produced a more relaxing seminar.

Lutze-Mann (2005) and Ross (2006, in Alzaid, 2017, p. 162) mention a number of advantages behind the use of peer assessment including:

1. It provides consistent results across the evaluation criteria and tasks in short period of time.
2. It gives information about student achievement and leads to higher student achievement.
3. It contributes in enhancing strengths through training students and how to evaluate their work.
4. It involves learners in the learning process and develops their ability to think critically.
5. Learning from critical evaluation and feedback from others
6. It develops social skills such as cooperative learning.

IV.5.1.1. Problems associated with peer assessment

A number of studies contend that peer assessment is not completely void of inherent drawbacks. **Lim (2007,p.170)** indicates that objectivity of evaluation, validity of peer assessment and learning training are the most common problems associated with the application of peer assessment.

Mc Dowell (1995, in Falchikov, 2005, p.153) reports case study research that shows how some learners view peer assessment as time-saving mechanism for teachers. Lack of objectivity, which is affected by a number of factors including friendship, may lead to over as well as low marking. **Lapham and Webster (1999, p. 188)** state that “[p]rejudice, favouritism, friendships and ethnic division led to collaboration over marks and mark fixing”. Learners may fear to mark inappropriately because either of lack of knowledge of subject matter or of fear of retaliation. **Lin et al (2001), Purchase (2000)** and **Beaman (1998)** report encountering relation in relation to peer assessment. The problem of bias is detected by **Magin (2001b, p. 54)** including variation in marking standards between raters “This criticism

holds particular force where a peer mark is based on an individual peer rating”. When peer assessment is used to give grades and scores rather than feedback, the issues of honesty and credibility may raise. Saito and Fujita (2004, p.34) believe that peer assessment is “unreliable and thus inadequately for evaluative purposes”.

Moreover, peer assessment may have negative affective side. Learners may experience greater pressure when they are assessed by peers rather by a teacher. Embarrassment and threats of self-image may be the results of learners experiencing peer assessment (McDowell, 1995; Purchase, 2000; Lin et al, 2001; Reynolds and Trehan, 2000). Falchikov (2005, p.161) adds the fact that peer assessment is received by learners as time and effort consuming.

Speaking skills are central to the contemporary FL classroom, with the aim of “developing learners’ fluency and accuracy, as well as their sociocultural communicative competence requiring adapting the language from context to context and from genre to genre”(Hinkel, 2010, p. 123). Such adaptation requires teachers to consider their assessment tools also, if their aim is to enhance learners’ language proficiency and progress. It makes sense, therefore, that spoken communicative proficiency should be an important focus for assessment. The following point will tackle assessment of speaking and more precisely peer assessment of the speaking skill.

IV.5.4. Peer assessment of speaking

Assessment is an important component of course planning and design that should occur throughout the course. It helps to recognize learners’ needs and analyze their progress.

Speaking skills are an important part of the curriculum in language teaching, and this makes them an important object of assessment as well. Paired speaking assessment has been growing since the 1980s (Ducasse and Brown, 2009, in East, 2016, p. 42). In a comparison

of single vs. paired assessment, **East (2016,p. 42)** argues that paired speaking assessments offer advantages that other tests do not.

Goh and Burns (2012, p. 259) outline a number of factors that teachers should take into consideration when assessing speaking:

- Students should be informed when they are being assessed.
- Students should be informed how they will be assessed.
- Teachers should make the criteria for assessment explicit to the students.
- -The ratings, scores, marks, or grades attached to the criteria should be explained to students.

Teachers should not neglect these issues, when they prepare learners for assessment, and have to look for ways to explain that clearly. Both researchers further argue that good assessment needs to be:

- Linked to the goals and objectives for the course;
- Reliable, in that both intra-rater and inter-rater reliability need to be achieved. The former means that the same assessor has the ability to rate students' task performances over several days, using the same criteria. The latter is about different assessors' ability to reach agreement about a learner's task performance;
- Valid which means that assessment should assess what it claims to assess;
- Based on clear criteria and shared descriptors.

Thornbury (2006, in Goh and Burns, 2012,p. 263) claims that, unlike assessment of grammar or writing where responses can be recorded, assessment of speaking is straight

forward “speaking must be assessed through speaking. The teacher must arrange for the time and opportunity for students to demonstrate their spoken skills and also must devise tasks enabling students to do so”. Teachers, however, have to think carefully about assessment specifications and try to consider the following points:

- What is the purpose of the assessment?
- Who are the students to be assessed?
- What is the level of the assessment?
- What skills or knowledge are being assessed?
- How many tasks do the students need to undertake to complete the assessment?
- How long will they have to complete the task(s)?
- Are all of the tasks weighted equally?
- What communicative situation does the assessment target?
- What type and length of texts are involved in the assessment?
- What language skills and knowledge are being assessed?
- What language features are being assessed?
- What tasks do students have to perform?
- What instructions will be given to the students about completing the tasks?
- What criteria will be used to assess the performance?
- How will the performance be rated and scored? (Goh and Burns, 2012, pp.264-5)

Teachers can help learners to develop their speaking skills by introducing them to new types of assessment and encouraging them to take responsibility for their learning. Peer assessment of speaking, where learners evaluate the performance of their peers, can be used as a supplement to teacher assessment. **Luoma (2004, p. 189)** views that peer assessment can help learners become more aware of their learning goals, learn through evaluation, and learn from each other. It also “allows teachers to share some of the rating responsibility with their students”.

Few studies, however, seem to tackle the issue of involving EFL learners to evaluate their peers’ performances of spoken English. Researchers have approached the subject from two different points: teachers and learners marking and factors that influence the perception and inclusion or incorporation of feedback. We talk about perception and incorporation of feedback because learners, in peer assessment of speaking, play two roles: providers and receivers of feedback. In other words, previous studies tried to answer the following question: (1) Do learners have the ability to assess their peers’ performance? (2) What factors in peer assessment affect the enhancement of L2 speaking ability?

Saito (2008) and **Jafarpur (1991, in Joo, 2016, p. 69)** see that learners raters face difficulty because of their limited proficiency in the language, lack of anonymity, and rating activities are inseparable from classroom practices. **Saito (2008, in Joo, 2016, p. 70)** conducted a meta-analysis of four peer assessment studies and compared peer marks with those awarded by teachers. He found a strong relation between L2 peer and teacher ratings. **Hughes and Large (1993)**, **Freeman (1995)**, and **Cheng and Warren (2005, in Lee and Chang, 2005, p. 713)** report a high consistency of AP comparable to TA. The results of **Chang and Lee (2005, p. 725)** run counter to the above observations. Both researchers worked on the possibility of employing self and peer assessment as alternative approaches to assessment of seven Korean learners’ oral presentation task performance. Though learners

have appreciated their participation and felt a kind of improvement of their presentation skills, their rating did not match that of teachers. Learners had overrated their peers and felt comfortable and uncertain. To cope with the subjectivity aspect and develop more reliable and valid PA instrument, researchers call for learners' training for the accuracy of PA. They recommend providing learners with adequate practice and training as well as with their involvement in defining assessment criteria.

Patri (2002, p. 111) conducted an experimentation with 56 native Chinese students' oral presentations. Participants had passed a training session that lasted for about two hours of class time. The aim behind the training was to fix the assessment criteria. The whole work lasted for five weeks. The results proved that peer feedback enables learners to make judgments of their peers comparable to those of the teacher. Hence, peers' involvement in the task of assessment may allow teachers to use their time "more productively on issues related to improving their teaching techniques" (**Patri, 2002, p. 125**)

Sato and Lyster (2012, p. 614) examined the effectiveness of corrective feedback by explicitly teaching four University level English classes in Japan (N.167) how to provide corrective feedback to one another during meaning- focused activities. They concluded that learners, being trained as both receivers and providers of feedback, may develop the ability to notice errors in their peers' speech "Learners autonomously attended to form during spontaneous speech". Another advantage behind the use of CF is its impact on fluency development, the speech rates of the feedback groups, in this study, was not different from peer interaction-only groups "CF did not impede fluency development but rather facilitated monitoring, which contributed to both more accurate and faster processing" (**Sato and Lyster, 2012, p. 611**). **Ahangari, Rassekh- Alqol and Hamed (213, p. 51)** indicate that when assessment criteria are clearly set, "teacher assessment could be complemented with peer assessment at a lower cost in the context of oral skills".

Cheng and Warren (1997, in Joo, 2016, p. 76) discussed students' attitudes towards peer assessment. A number of 52 first year Electrical engineering students were given training in peer assessment which comprised discussions of the advantages and drawbacks of peer assessment. After, they were asked to assess each group seminar and oral presentations. Learners too were required to complete pre- and post-questionnaires to understand their attitudes towards peer assessment before and after conducting the PA task. Later, students who changed their responses were interviewed. The researchers concluded that students were mostly in favor of peer assessment. For the minority who became or remained negative towards learners' involvement in peer assessment, the researchers argued that the reason is psychological. Learners claimed that their unqualified level hindered them to judge their peers' oral performances. Friendship affected being objective and learners regarded the whole task as unfair and risky.

The above cited studies agree that peer assessment is important and needed when the overall aim is learning. They reveal that careful planning as well as learner involvement in language programs can give good results.

Conclusion

Assessment is a critical activity in any instructional program. The paradigm shift from Teacher-centered learning to Learner-centered learning calls for the active involvement of learners in the assessment process. Encouraging learners to judge their peers' language proficiency can help them get to know how to learn, recognize their strength and weaknesses, and permit them to see their current level and whether it is close or distant from the level they wish to attain.

The use of peer assessment in speaking proves to be fruitful. Learners' training and involvement in setting the assessment criteria, taking into account learners' psych-affective facts, play a major role in enabling students to make judgments of their peers'

Chapter Five

Introduction

This chapter provides a comprehensive description of the research methodology employed in the current study. It first explains the research design of this study where a description of the combination of the quantitative and qualitative research is provided. This is followed by outlining the data collection instruments used in this study (i.e., quasi-experimentation, questionnaires, and interviews), and rationale behind their selection.

V.1. Research Design

It is very important for researchers to identify the research design of their studies, as the research design will have implications on both data collection procedures and data analysis. This study is an example of classroom-oriented research in an EFL context. Classroom-oriented research is defined as ‘research which either derives its data from genuine language classrooms or which has been carried out in order to address issues of direct relevance to the language classroom’ (Nunan, 1991b:249). To achieve the best results, the researcher opted for a mixed approach that comprises both a quantitative and a qualitative approach. In this section, I will first, briefly describe the two approaches separately and then outline the combination of these two approaches in carrying out one study.

V.1.1. Quantitative research

The quantitative method, which is related with the positivist paradigm, ‘involves data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analyzed primarily by statistical methods’ (Dörnyei, 2007b, p.24). The main features of a quantitative research is that it is+ conducted in an objective manner; it asks specific questions which can be measured. The data are quantifiable and usually analyzed using statistics. Examples of quantitative research are questionnaires, tests and experiments.

Quantitative research has many advantages, **Dörnyei (2007, p.34)** argues that it is ‘systematic, rigorous, focused, tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that are generalizable to other contexts’. The main reasons that pushed us to select questionnaire as a quantitative tool is the fact that it enables the researcher to collect data from large-scale population to investigate the subject of research, and its findings can be later generalized.

However, quantitative research has its disadvantages. **Brannen (2005, p. 07)** views that quantitative research as “overly simplistic, decontextualized, reductionist in terms of its generalizations, and failing to capture the meanings that actors attach to their lives and experiences”. In other words, quantitative methods are claimed to lack depth in understanding certain phenomena under investigation. Considering the drawbacks of quantitative methods, it is necessary to integrate qualitative methods into the study.

V.1.2. Qualitative research

The qualitative approach is associated with the interpretivist paradigm. It originally developed from methodologies of field anthropology and sociology. Qualitative research is characterized by its flexibility which implies that aspects of the research design are not prefigured and the study is kept open to respond flexibly to new details that may emerge along the process of investigation. Regarding the nature of qualitative data, qualitative research is typically associated with participant observation, semi- and unstructured interviewing, focus groups, the qualitative examination of texts, and various language-based techniques like conversation and discourse analysis (**Bryman, 1992, p.59**). The researcher transforms data gathered from such tools into a textual form, i.e. words. Also, qualitative research takes place in a natural setting without manipulating the situation under study. Unlike quantitative research which is characterized by its objectivity, qualitative research

looks for subjective opinions, experiences, and feelings of participants. Qualitative studies typically use small-sample size and the analysis of the participants' outcomes is based on the researcher subjective interpretation.

However, qualitative research has its disadvantages. It is criticized for being too context-specific, their samples are unrepresentative, and the limited number of participants involved in qualitative studies might be argued to undermine the generalisability of the research results to a larger population (**Brannen 2005, p. 07**).

Discussion of both approaches may lead to a conclusion that the strength of one paradigm is the weakness of the other. Whereas a quantitative research design seeks objectivity in collecting and analyzing data and make generalizations, a qualitative research design can provide additional and an in-depth explanation of different factors in a particular context. The qualities and demerits of both approaches call for the use of mixed methods research that holds the two methods.

V.1.3. Mixed methods

Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007, p. 123) analyzed a number of definitions for mixed method research and come out with the following definition:

Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration.

Put it simply, mixed method research is about the incorporation of the qualities of quantitative and qualitative methods, during the process of collecting data and analyzing it, to

gain in-depth knowledge of a research problem. The combination of these methods in the same piece of research helps to get out the best of both paradigms. Moreover, complex phenomenon can be simplified by joining numeric trends from quantitative data together with specific details from qualitative data, thus leading to improved validity.

Mixed method research, however, has a number of limitations. Johnson and **Onwuegbuzien (2004, p. 21)** argues that a research team may be required to conduct a mixed method research rather than a single researcher who may lack talent of mixing methods appropriately. It is more expensive and more time consuming, and some of the details of mixed research remain to be worked out fully by research methodologists (e.g., problems of paradigm mixing, how to qualitatively analyze quantitative data, how to interpret conflicting results).

Based on the aforementioned purposes of using mixed methods research, this research adopted the mixed methods approach because it allows provision of a breadth of information using quantitative instruments, as well as exploring the research enquiry in depth using qualitative data. The following table resumes methods and data triangulation in this study.

Quasi-experimentation	Questionnaire
Pre-test: Second year students in the English department constitutes experimental and control groups	Pre-questionnaire: Second year students in the English department constitutes experimental and control group
Experimentation: the experimental groups only	
Post-test: Second year students in the English department constitutes experimental and control groups	Post-questionnaire: Second year students in the English department constitutes experimental and control groups

Questionnaire	
Teachers' questionnaire	Learners' questionnaire
Interviews	
Teachers' interview	Learners' interview

Table V.1: Methods and data triangulation of the study

The next table describes the usage of each research instrument to answer each question of this research separately.

Research questions	Research instruments		
	Quasi-experimentation	Questionnaire	Interview
1. Teachers' and learners' roles in an autonomous classroom		✓	✓
2. The impact of speaking strategy instruction on learners' oral proficiency	✓		✓
3. The usefulness of oral authentic tasks in fostering learners' autonomy			✓
4. Group work effects on students' independency.	✓	✓	✓
5. Peer-assessment use in an EFL classroom		✓	✓

Table V.2: Outline of the usage of research instruments

Having presented the research methodology in general terms, the next section will centre on the design and development of the research instruments that were adopted in the study. These instruments include quasi-experimentation, questionnaires, and interviews.

V.2. Research instruments

V.2.1. The Quasi-experiment

V.2.1.1. The rationale for using the quasi-experiment in this study

Quasi-experimental research is a quantitative research tool which is employed to test causal relationships between an independent variable and a dependent variable. **Creswell (2012, p.295)** argues that in an experiment, the researcher tests an idea (or practice or procedure) to determine whether it influences an outcome or dependent variable. He/she first decides on an idea with which to “experiment,” assign individuals to experience it (and have some individuals experience something different), and then determine whether those who experienced the idea (or practice or procedure) performed better on some outcome than those who did not experience it.

The quasi-experimental, quantitative approach was chosen for this study because one of the research questions required the use of a research method that would enable me to examine the effect of teachable speaking strategies on students’ oral proficiency, thus autonomy, in the real classroom setting. In other words, the quasi-experimental strategy is followed to control and manipulate the teachable speaking strategies’ variable and examine the effect that its experimental manipulation has on learners’ oral performance (the dependent variable or the outcome of the study).

A comparison of a true-experimentation with a quasi-experimentation would demonstrate that the former minimizes the possibility of generalizing results due to its well-controlled nature, whereas the latter permits more generalization. In a true experiment, participants are randomly assigned to either the treatment or the control group, whereas they are not assigned randomly in a quasi-experiment. I believed that this quasi-experiment would be more likely to produce findings generalizable to the real classroom. Another point of strength for quasi-

experimentation is that it is conducted in a natural setting rather than a laboratory setting like experimentation. **Hatch & Farhady (1982)** claim:

Our goal should be to approximate as closely as possible the standards of true experimental design. The more care we take the more confidence we can be that we have valid results that we can share with others. However, if we reduce our experiments to highly artificial laboratory-type experiments, we must also worry about whether the results can be directly transferred and shared as valid for the classroom. (**Hatch & Farhady, 1982, p.76**)

It was important for me to know how teachable speaking strategies would actually work in the real classroom. Adopting a quasi-experimental, quantitative approach was, therefore, an appropriate research method for this study. What this method entails will be discussed in the following sections.

V.2.1.2. Characteristics of the Quasi-experiment

Quasi-experimental situations are seen by **Kerlinger (1970, cited in Cohen et al, 2000, p.214)** as ‘compromise designs’, ‘an apt description when applied to much educational research where the random selection or random assignment of schools and classrooms is quite impracticable’. There are different types of quasi-experimental designs. The pre-test-post-test non-equivalent control group design is one of them, which can be diagrammed as follows:

Group 1 → Pre-test → Experimental Treatment → Post-test

Group 2 → Pre-test ----- → Post-test

In a pretest-posttest design, the dependent variable is measured once before the treatment is implemented and once after it is implemented. The pretest-posttest design is much like a within-subjects experiment in which each participant is tested first under the control condition and then under the treatment condition.

As stated above, one of the features of quasi-experimentation is that subjects are not randomly assigned. This fact pushes the researcher to ensure that the control group is as similar as the experimental group as possible. **Muijs (2004, pp.27-29)** suggests, in educational settings extraneous variables such as student background, teacher quality and school climate may affect the experimental outcome, so it is very necessary to make the control group as similar to the experimental group as possible on all aspects except for the treatment. A brief review of experimental validity and how to conduct the quasi-experiment to enhance the validity in this study will be provided below.

V.2.1.3. Experimental Validity

Validity, according to **Hammersley (1990, p.57)**, is truth interpreted as the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers. It is viewed by **Wellington (2000, p.201)** as the degree to which a method, a test or a research tool actually measures what it is supposed to measure. The two types of validity are internal validity and external validity. When an experiment is internally valid, we are certain that the independent variable caused the outcome of the study (**Best & Kahn, 2006, p.171**). Experimental external validity, on the other hand, is the possibility to generalize results to other groups that were not included in the study.

Compared with a tightly-controlled true experiment, when an experiment is conducted in a natural educational setting, there are many extraneous variables that a researcher attempts to control. As **Gay et al (2006)** argue, when they are better controlled, the experiment tends to

have greater internal validity but lower external validity. On the contrary, when they are less controlled, the experiment tends to have greater external validity but lower internal validity. As this study was conducted with intact groups in the real classroom, there were some variables which might not have been controlled by the researcher and thus might have threatened the experimental internal validity. Some of them will be mentioned in the coming sections below, and they will also be taken into account in the interpretation of the findings. Another point that extends and ensures the validity of our experimentation is the fact that learners, with whom we conducted the study, were not aware that they were part of a research project.

V.2.1.4. The Quasi-experimental Design

As previously stated, the present study employed a quasi-experimental equivalent randomized pre-test-post-test control group research design, as a first research instrument, to investigate some of the research questions in this study.

When a control group acts as a baseline, the experimental treatment can be compared with what would happen if there was no treatment. In this study the experimental group was exposed to speaking strategies' training while the control group did not get such treatment. The purpose of the between-group comparison was to see whether the causal variable, teachable speaking strategies had an effect on the students' oral proficiency.

Our study sets out to examine the contribution that formal strategies-based instruction might offer learners in University-level foreign language classrooms, with a particular focus on speaking. The emphasis was on speaking because this area had received such limited attention in the research literature, although it is in many cases the most critical language skill of all.

As stated earlier in chapter three on speaking strategies, learning strategies may be observable (use of gestures, use of fillers ...) and non-observable (selective attention ...). In almost all learning contexts, the only way to find out whether learners are using learning strategies while engaged in a language task is to ask them through questionnaires, written diaries, journals, and other tools. In this respect, we sought to compare the perceived strategy use and actual strategy use by the selected sample of learners through task performance which was followed directly by a questionnaire.

As far as perceived strategy use, we relied on a list of 32 statements which were rated by learners themselves on a 5-point scale on a strategy questionnaire for the selected task. The Oral Communication Strategy Inventory questionnaire, which was designed by Nakatani in 2006 and which is widely used nowadays as a tool for statistical analysis to identify the learners' general perceptions of strategies for oral interaction, consists of 32 items of 8 categories for coping with speaking problems on a five-point Likert type scale, ranging from 1 (never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me). According to **Nakatani (2006)**, the reliability of 32 items was 0.86 with acceptable internal consistency. Learners were required to fill in the questionnaire directly after they performed the oral task to reflect which strategies they used to complete it (**See appendix E**).

The actual strategy use, however, was measured in task performance transcripts. Learners were designed a story completion task under the theme: Going to the doctor. They were given the beginning of the story which talked about John who woke up one morning feeling unwell, and then decided to make an appointment with his doctor. Students were asked to imagine what the person in the story might do, say, think, or feel next, if the story were to continue (**See appendix F**).

The selection of this task was based on its length, the lack of ambiguity in the story beginning, its appropriacy for all proficiency levels as it needed at least minimum

contribution from low proficiency learners and challenges for the high ones, the communicative nature it held, it provided each student with an equal opportunity to participate as it was performed in group work, and the input of the task was in the form of visual written prompt. Even students perceived it to be suitable and motivating.

Story completion task can be described as consisting of few elements: one person who felt ill and needed to visit his doctor; learners were left free to rely on their working memory or perform it using their written notes; reasoning demands of the task were less necessary; planning time for the task was limited as learners were given half an hour to exchange ideas within sub-groups and perform the task; it was a single task as all learners were supposed to deal with the same task; learners were predicted to bring the most prior knowledge (world knowledge and linguistic knowledge) to the task; it was an open task as participants were free to imagine the continuing events of the story; it was a two-way task where learners were given the opportunity for group work to complete the task; and it had divergent goals because it generated various ideas and readings of the story.

All thirty-eight videos were transcribed manually because software (mainly Google.Doc) used to convert videos to texts could not decipher the speech. The researcher replayed all videos several times to code the main strategies used by all the three groups before and after the experimental phase (See appendix G). Table below explains the number of videos recorded in the pre-post tests for the control and experimental groups.

Group	G1.pre-test	G1.post-test	G2.pre-test	G2.post-test	G3.pre-test	G3.post-test
Number of recorded videos	07	09	07	05	05	05

Table V.3: the overall recorded videos

After completing the pre-test by the control and experimental groups, the students in the experimental group received instruction in a strategies-based format throughout the 10-week second semester of 2018. Strategy training was presented as a separate learning task, in that the instructor provided explicit strategy training followed by classroom activities suitable to the selected range of strategies.

The taxonomy that we adopted in our experimentation was that of **Oxford (2001)** as it is the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies to date because she tried to include all previously mentioned strategies in the literature. During the ten weeks of instruction, students of the experimental groups were taught explicitly the six types of strategies developed by Oxford and were required to perform different oral tasks after each strategy type- instruction (**See appendices H**).

In order not to disturb the normal teaching schedule and gain more objectivity for our research, the instructor of Oral comprehension/production module taught and conducted the study with three intact classes at the University of BBA. From the outset, these three classes seemed equivalent to me and I chose two to be the experimental classes (the EC) and the other to be the control class (the CC).

V.2.1.5. Sampling

The method of using both a target and a larger population group is widely used in educational research. The target group, the subject of study, is a subset of the larger group and shares characteristics with it. In this study, English language learners in the English department at Mohamed El Bachir El Ibrahimi University were the wider population. Second year Undergraduate English language learners in the same department were the target population.

Participants in the study were the three groups of second year undergraduates majoring in English. The total sample size was 72 within the EC, with three absences in group two during the post-test, and 36 in the CC. Since learners in the department's mother tongue was Arabic, second year senior students were chosen who had more exposure to the English language. All the groups shared the same heterogeneous mix of characteristics, such as age, gender mix, and educational background. Both the treatment and control groups had some higher and some lower level learners.

V.2.2. Questionnaire

Questionnaires are probably the most commonly used method in general educational research (**Cohen and Manion, 1994; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Oppenheim, 1992**) as well as in language learning research (**Nunan, 1992**). According to **Brown (200 I)**, questionnaires refer to "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting them among existing answers" (p.6). "Questionnaires allow researchers to gather information that learners are able to report about themselves, such as their beliefs and motivation about learning or their reactions to learning and classroom instructions and activities-information that is typically not available from production data alone" (**Mackey and Gass, 2005, pp. 92-93**). **Nunan (1992: 143)** claims that questionnaires enable the researcher to collect data in field settings, and the data themselves are more amenable to quantification than discourse data such as freeform field notes. Questionnaires yield responses, which are uniformly organized and lend themselves easily to statistical analysis. **Weir and Roberts (1994, p. 152)** state some advantages in the use of questionnaires:

1. They are cheaper and more cost-efficient;
2. They allow wider sampling;

3. They ask everybody the same questions;
4. They give more time to think about answers;
5. They may prove easier to analyze.

Dornyei (2003) claims that questionnaires are used to elicit three types of data about the respondents: "factual, behavioural, and attitudinal". He writes:

(1) Factual questions are used to find out about who the respondents are; they typically cover demographic characteristics (e.g. age, gender, and race)... (2) Behavioural questions are used to find out what the respondents are doing or have done in the past; they ask about people's actions, life-styles, habits, and personal history ... (3) Attitudinal questions are used to find out what people think; this is a broad category that concerns attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values (p.8).

As a well-known method of data collection, questionnaires are usually used to support findings with quantitative results [i.e. category (2) above]. In the current study a two-part questionnaire, learner autonomy questionnaire and students' perceptions of peer assessment questionnaire, was developed with the aim of seeking answers from participants to behavioral and attitudinal questions.

V.2.2.1. Data collection procedure

The present study employed questionnaires as one of the main instruments of data elicitation. Teachers and learners were administered questionnaires for different reasons.

V.2.2.2. *Students' questionnaire*

To determine the degree of learner autonomy, and perception of peer assessment, a validated questionnaire was used for learners. Investigating the reported level of autonomy of the students does not mean that the students' autonomy is declared with that questionnaire. However, the students will have a statement of their own view of autonomy while learning a foreign language. Apart from that speaking strategies used by the students would also reflect the answers supplied by the students.

The present study seeks to investigate the correlation among reported degree of learner autonomy of the students and their perception of peer assessment technique (**See appendix I**).

The quantitative instrument comprises two main parts which are explained below .

1.Learner Autonomy questionnaire

Learner Autonomy Questionnaire was used to address learner autonomy from the students' prospective. The questionnaire was designed by **Zhang and Li (2004)**. One reason for choosing this questionnaire is that it was revised on the basis of the learning strategies that were classified by **Oxford (1990)**, **O'Malley and Chamot (1990)** and **Wenden (1998)**. Besides, many studies used this tool and revealed that it is of high reliability and validity (**Dafei, 2007; Nematipour, 2012; Rahman, 2012; Shangarffam& Ghazi, 2013**). According to **Zhang and Li (2004)**, using Cronbach's Alpha, the reliability of this questionnaire was estimated to be 0.80. Furthermore, **Zhang and Li (2004)** reported that this questionnaire enjoyed high validity.

The questionnaire has two parts. The first part contains 11 items and second 10, totally 21 items. The first 11 items has five options in Likert scale from never to always (A. never, B. rarely, C. sometimes, D. often, E. always). The second part of the questionnaire is in

multiple-choice format. The participants chose the closer answer to their beliefs and their attitudes or ideas. The researcher administered the questionnaire in person, which was done on May 2018 in the department of foreign languages, BBA. The subjects were required to finish the questions individually based on their own learning conditions for thirty minutes.

2. Peer assessment part

The design of peer assessment part within learners' questionnaire was guided by three criteria: First, a review of the related literature in peer assessment and the processes involved as well as what effective peer assessment entails ; second, a review of similar instruments designed for similar purposes ((**Cheng and Warren 2005; Wen, Tsai, and Chang 2006; Kaufman and Schunn 2011; McGarr and Clifford 2013; Planas Lladó et al. 2014**)); and third, the workability of the instrument with the subjects. The five-point Likert scale survey, which was used to investigate University students' perceptions towards peer assessment, holds statements about the usefulness of peers' feedback, the positive and negative nature of peers' feedback, and the fairness of peer grades etc.

V.2.2.3. Teachers' questionnaire

Teachers' survey targets BBA EFL teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy. Survey research can be carried out to answer questions, solve problems, analyze needs and set goals, check whether objectives have been met, and describe what exists, in what amount, and in what context. (**Isaac & Michael, 1997, p. 136**). Survey designs are defined as "procedures in quantitative research in which investigations administer a survey to a sample or a population of people to determine the attitudes, opinions, behaviors, or characteristics of the population" (**Creswell, 2012, p. 376**). Survey research is characterized by its versatility, efficiency, and generalizability. The versatility of survey methods implies that it can be used to investigate

different areas of education as school desegregation, academic achievement, teaching practice, and leadership. Efficiency of a survey reflects the fact that many variables can be measured without substantially increasing the time or cost. Survey data can be collected from many people at relatively low cost and, depending on the survey design, relatively quickly. Survey methods lend themselves to probability sampling from large populations. In other words, surveys are relatively easy for making generalizations (Bell, 1996, p. 68). Surveys are the only tool to elicit information about attitudes that are difficult to measure using observational techniques (McIntyre, 1999, p. 75).

The above reasons pushed the researcher to focus on a survey as one of the fundamental tools in this research. The researcher generated a survey to explore teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy in the Algerian contexts. Items on the survey were constructed from the literature reviewed on teachers' beliefs and learner autonomy and from previous research done on learner autonomy (See appendix J).

V.2.2.4. *Survey design*

To construct a survey, the researcher must determine an adequate sample size and choose media through which the survey must be administered. Sample selection depends on the population size, its homogeneity, the sample media and its cost of use, and the degree of precision required (Salant & Dillman, 1994, p. 54). As far as this research is concerned, all seven permanent teachers of English at the department of foreign languages, BBA University were selected to fill in the written survey. The choice of this survey medium is best suited to eliciting confidential information, besides it requires minimum resources (staff, time, and cost). To minimize response bias, the researcher tried to keep the survey short to avoid any boredom or fatigue. Learner autonomy definition, sense of responsibility, beliefs about students, constraints to autonomy, and fostering autonomy are the five subscales identified in

this research. Each section was broken down into a number of items, and each item embraced sub-choice that reflected the nature of each investigated category (see table below).

Themes	Number of items	Number of choices for each item
Definition	01	02
Sense of responsibility	01	12
Beliefs about students' autonomy	02	04/03
Constraints to autonomy	01	03
Fostering autonomy	02	02/05

Table V.4: Summary of the questionnaire categories

In order to construct a general picture of the participants' beliefs and practices regarding learner autonomy, the 1st question in section 1 was designed to investigate teachers' definition of the term learner autonomy; questions in sections 2 and 3 were designed to investigate teachers' roles or responsibility for planning, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating in the class; and how they viewed their learners' abilities to take responsibility to plan, implement, monitor and evaluate his/her learning in tasks. Finally, to understand the participants' current situation in relation to learner autonomy, questions on the constraints that they believed they were facing as well as their suggested approaches to foster learner autonomy were developed in sections in the two last sections.

V.2.3. Interviews

Interviewing is considered one of the most common tools in educational research (Fryer et al., 2012; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Oppenheim, 2003, Seidman, 2006; Tierney & Dille, 2001). Seidman (2006) stated that "The purpose of in-depth interviewing is not to get answers to questions, nor to test hypotheses, and not to "evaluate" as the term is normally

used. [...] At the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience.” (p. 9). Interviewing is considered an extremely rich data collection method and a primary means of understanding peoples’ beliefs in greater depth. According to **Wellington and Szczerbinski (2007)**, “interviewing allows a researcher to investigate and prompt things that we cannot observe. In the same vein, **Tuckman (1972, p. 173)** points out that interviews help researchers to access what is “inside a person’s head”, which makes it possible to measure what a person knows (knowledge or information), what a person likes or dislikes (values and preferences), and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs). Therefore, the purpose of the interviews is “to allow us to enter into the person’s perspective” (**Patton, 2002, p. 341**). A view supported by **Wellington (2015)** who argues that “it offers people, whether they be employers, teachers, young pupils or students, an opportunity to make their perspectives known, i.e. to go public” (**p. 140**).

Denscombe (2014, pp.173-174) claims that the researcher has to pay attention to the following points when conducting an interview:

- There is consent to take part. From the researcher’s point of view this is particularly important in relation to research ethics. The interview is not done by secret recording of discussions or the use of casual conversations as research data. It is openly a meeting intended to produce material that will be used for research purposes – and the interviewee understands this and agrees to it.
- Interviewees’ words can be treated as ‘on the record’ and ‘for the record’. It is, of course, possible for interviewees to stipulate that their words are not to be attributed to them, or not to be made publicly available. The point is,

though, that unless interviewees specify to the contrary, the interview talk is ‘on record’ and ‘for the record’.

- The agenda for the discussion is set by the researcher. Although the degree of control exercised by the researcher will vary according to the style of interviewing, there is a tacit agreement built into the notion of being interviewed that the proceedings and the agenda for the discussion will be controlled by the researcher. The semi-structured interview provide a compromise between being prepared with a set of questions and being open for further elaboration on certain issues at the same time, when it was necessary.

Anderson and Arsenault (1998, p.202) mentions a number of drawbacks behind the use of interviews including the difficulty to

record responses, particularly if the interviewer is also responsible for writing them down. Second, the quality of responses, that is their reliability and validity, is dependent on the interviewer. Different interviewers may obtain different answers, particularly if questions, procedures and techniques are not standardized. Third, the context, which has the advantage of providing useful non-verbal information, has the disadvantage of sometimes affecting responses due to interruptions and pressures of time.

Sole reliance upon statistical data would be insufficient to gather the information necessary to complete this study. It is necessary to employ a more qualitative approach to grasp the various compelling connections between learner autonomy and the variables that

foster it including speaking strategy instruction, oral authentic and group tasks, and peer assessment.

The type of interview chosen in this research is semi-structured group interviews. In a semi-structured interview, the researcher has a list of questions with specific topics that he/s wants to explore, but the interviewee has a great deal of flexibility in answering those questions. The researcher may therefore ask questions that are not on the list in response to what the interviewee has said.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with two EFL teachers of oral expression module and six EFL students. This type was chosen to structure the interviews because, as mention earlier, it allows the interviewer to set guideline questions and at the same time, it allows elaboration on useful information. The main aim of semi-structured interviews is to get an in-depth understanding about how students/teachers think about learning/teaching English (beliefs), why they learn/teach English (learner autonomy) and how they learn/ teach English (speaking strategies, oral authentic group work tasks, and peer assessment) at El Bachir El Ibrahimi University in BBA.. I chose to conduct semi-structured interviews based on my assumption that interviews are a form of human interaction between the interviewer and interviewee where “knowledge evolves through a dialogue” (Kvale, 1996, p. 125). Secondly, “semi-structured interviews may be more manageable than unstructured ones, while avoiding the inflexibility of the fully structured approach” (Hammond & Wellington, 2013, p. 93). I would also add that the questions I asked were open-ended, except for one close-ended question in learners’ interview, and my interviewee had the flexibility to talk about the topics in the interview questions. Furthermore, my interviews guide “reflects the concepts that are embedded within the research questions and the conceptual framework of the study” (Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey, 2013, p. 117).

There are a number of factors that may affect the quality of the interview data. The first of these factors is the influence of the “power relations” between the interviewer and interviewee, a point further explained by [Henn et al. \(2006\)](#) who state that: “the power of certain people and groups to resist a researcher’s investigations is also likely to affect the outcome of any research study” (p. 74). In other words, if the researcher experiences some power in the way participants responded to questions, the research findings might not be as trustworthy as they need to be. It also could be the same result when the participants experience some power posed by the researcher. The second point is ambiguity in questions which can cause the disagreement about the meaning of the terms used. Another factor that may affect interviews is the use of leading questions ([Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007, p. 85](#)).

In the context of my interviews, I attempted to overcome these factors by establishing rapport with my participants during the informal meetings for arrangements for interviews. Regarding the unclear or ambiguous questions, I have always been aware to make my questions understandable to my interviewees and try to clarify any misunderstanding that may occur. However, I would point out that my participants easily understood my interview questions which might be the result of their educational background and experience. In terms of the leading questions, I can highlight that my participants had the flexibility to talk about relevant topics without imposing any tight form of questions during all my interviews.

V.2.3.1. Participants

The number of participants in the interviews was eight: two EFL teachers and six EFL students. There are two concerns with the number of participants in this stage of the research. First, it is acknowledged that the number of participants is few; however, it was difficult to arrange interviews with more participants within the time constraints and the circumstances

of the participants. Second, the researcher aimed to interview all the three teachers of oral expression module for the three levels (1st year, 2nd year, and 3rd year respectively). However, teacher of third year oral expression module did not agree to participate in the interview.

V.2.3.2. Interview guiding questions

Based on the research questions and any general trends I detected from the statistical results of the questionnaire, I came up with the following guiding questions for my interviews:

1. **Guiding questions for learners' interview**

2. How do you evaluate your progress in learning English as a foreign language?

Why?

3. Do you think that your learning environment helps you to learn English and become an independent learner?

4. In order to speak English well what does a student need to do?

5. Which activities do you find most useful for improving your oral proficiency?

- Watching movies/ TV in English;
- Reading English books/ newspaper/ novels;
- Listening to music;
- Listening to radio and news programs in English;
- Talking with native speakers;
- Talking with myself.

3. During oral expression session, how do you prefer to work on the language activity?
Why?
4. Has your teacher of oral expression ever given you opportunity to select activities that suit your interests?
5. When you come across a new word in English, what do you do to learn it and memorize it?
6. What do you do when you cannot think of a word during a conversation in English?
7. Do you think that peer-assessment is helpful to your learning? Why
8. Do you think that your classmates have the ability to assess your performance? Explain
9. What about you?
10. Do you think students should take part in assessing their peers? Why?

2. Guiding questions for teachers' interview

1. What do you know about learner autonomy?
2. What do you think is the difference between an autonomous and non-autonomous learner concerning language learning?
3. What for you are the key characteristics of an autonomous language learner?
4. What should a teacher do to promote learner autonomy in or outside of class?
5. How can you help your learners in becoming autonomous?
6. In which cases do you give opportunity for decision to your students?

7. Do you seek students' opinion on what they would like to learn in the lessons?
8. Do you sometimes let them choose from several activities according to their interests during the lessons?
9. What sort of speaking activities can contribute autonomy in learners? Mention any if you apply.
10. During activities, do you organize the students to work in groups?
11. How do learning strategies contribute to learner autonomy?
12. What is your opinion about peer-assessment? What practical uses or possible dangers do you see in connection with it?
13. In what cases do you offer space for peer-assessment?
14. Do you apply learner autonomy on your students? Explain
15. Do you think that your students are autonomous?
16. Does the teaching and learning environment in Algeria help or hinder the development of autonomy? Explain?

V.2.3.3. Qualitative data collection

At the beginning of the interview I always briefly went over the purpose of the interview, the expected length, and guaranteed confidentiality to whatever they said during the interview. I also got their consent for recording before the interview started. All the interviews were recorded by EOS 1300D Canon camera for transcription. I made the choice to make an audio recording and not to depend on interview notes, thereby freeing me to focus on the interview process.

All these interviews were held in quiet rooms which provided a comfortable environment for us. The time of the interview was also decided on the teachers' preferences "The interviewer must establish an atmosphere in which the subjects feel safe enough to talk freely about his or her experiences and feelings" (Kvale, 1996, p. 125). The total time of learners' interviews was 52mns and 38sec, and teachers' interviews lasted 30mns and 51sec. All teachers/ learners had the opportunity to read the information sheet which described the motivation for the research and what it involves

V.2.3.4. Qualitative data analysis of students' interview

The students' interview was done on June 2018 and was conducted in the faculty's facilities , where I selected two participants from each target group for interviews; hence I had a total of six student interviewees. The interviewee sampling utilizes purposive strategy where the researcher handpicks the respondents based on the needs of the research. The main criterion for the selection is their different levels and the fact that each pair of learners belongs to either experimental or control groups, with whom we conducted the quasi-experimentation. Ideally, I wanted to select students who might have different opinions so I could get a richer and more complete data for my research.

Each student interview took about ten minutes. I also had a list of guiding questions during the interviews and always follow the order of the questions designed in the guiding list. The interview techniques I employed for student interviews were the same as the ones in the teacher interviews mentioned on the previously.

V.2.3.5. Transcribing data

The first step taken to handle the interview data was transcription. The recorded interviews were all transcribed manually because software (mainly google.doc) could not decipher

speech (see Appendices K and L for students and teacher's interviews transcripts respectively). We need to mention also that an iterative process was followed while transcribing the interview data. This involved "a nonlinear, 'zigzag' pattern: we move back and forth between data collection, data analysis and data interpretation depending on the emergent results (Dörnyei, 2007, p.243). This step was adopted in order to identify the correct meanings the interviewees might be trying to.

Conclusion

This chapter addresses research methodology employed to answer the questions developed in this research: EFL teachers' and learners' roles in an autonomous classroom, the efficiency of teachable speaking strategies, the appropriate oral tasks, learners' organization to perform a task, and the suitable method for assessing such tasks. The current study is an example of classroom-oriented research in an EFL context, where a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches was opted for to maximize the validity and reliability of results. Different research tools that were adopted include quasi-experimentation, questionnaires, and interviews.

The next chapter is devoted to analyze quantitative and qualitative findings obtained from the three research instruments.

Chapter Six

VI.1. Quasi-experiment findings

As stated earlier in the previous chapter, quasi-experimental equivalent randomized pre-test-post-test control group research design was used to examine the contribution that formal strategies-based instruction might offer learners in university-level foreign language classrooms, with a particular focus on speaking. The selection of this tool was to answer the following question developed in this research:

- To what extent are teachable speaking strategies beneficial for EFL learners' autonomy?

The pre-post tests consisted of a speaking task battery (story completion) followed directly by a strategy questionnaire to determine which strategies participants used to solve the task. The first point within this chapter will highlight the actual strategies used by the three groups before and after the experimental phase, and then we will merge findings of the two experimental groups (group 2 and 3) to see if any effect happened due to the strategy-based instruction.

The overall number of strategies mentioned in the strategy questionnaire was thirty-two strategies ranging from interactional, compensation, planning, and evaluating strategies. We should point, however, that the fact that many strategies within the questionnaire were not observable (mainly strategy 01, 02, 03, 18, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29, and 30) inhibit us to identify them in the transcripts. In addition, message abandonment, code-switching, and foreignising were each used once. We should mention too that actual strategies range between quantifiable strategies: use of fillers, gestures, self repair, appeal for help, long pause, restructuring, and retrieval, and unquantifiable ones: note taking, directed attention, attention to grammar and word order, attention to pronunciation, and attention to rhythm and intonation. Strategies 14 (making eye-contact) and 19(paying attention to the listener's reaction) of the SQ are merged

into one strategy under the name directed attention. Quantifiable strategies were measured by transcripts coding while unquantifiable strategies were identified by task observation.

VI.1.1. The actual strategy use for G1. Pre/post test

Strategy	Pre-M	Pre-S.D	Post-M	Post-S.D
Note-taking	High		High	
CFM (use of fillers)	16	5.47	8.33	5.10
P(directed attention)	High		High	
CFM (gesture)	6.42	5.20	4.11	5.59
CFM(self-repair)	2.85	2.86	1.11	0.53
C(appeal for help)	1.71	3.5	0.33	0.94
C(long pause)	1.71	3.1	1	1.15
C(restructuring)	1.14	1.43	0	0
C(retrieval)	4.85	3.69	5.55	6.27
Attention to grammar and word order	Medium		Medium	
Attention to pronunciation	Medium		Medium	
Attention to rhythm and intonation	Medium		Medium	

Table VI.1: Descriptive statistics of ASU for G.1 pre- /post-test

The above table shows that students of group one relied heavily on the use fillers, gestures, retrieval, and long pauses to transmit their ideas to the listener. All sub-groups preferred fillers as a way to gain more time to think of what to say next and avoid giving up the whole task. The use of fillers is illustrated in the following instances:

- Sub.g01pre-test: **uh** he was **uh** a bit afraid to see the **uh** doctor. When he entered the room, he found a black **uh** cat **uh** under the desk. **Suddenly, suddenly** the black cat jumped up under the desk **uh** and he turned to **uh** man of two heads.
- Sub.g02pre-test: while he was reading a magazine, an article caught his attention about types of cancer **uh** should **uh** the symptoms that John already had.
- Sub.g03pre-test: **So**, the doctor seemed very **uhm** seemed worried and he didn't want to notice the results to John...John felt horrible and depressed and he said inside himself this is **uh** the **uh** this is the end of life.
- Sub.g05post-test: ...John was in the reception room reading a magazine, **suddenly** he heard a **uh** voice of child crying, he stand up quickly and followed where the voice came from **uh**...
- Sub.g08post-test: ...He **uh** checked an appointment in **uh** morning after that, the doctor asked **uh** him to do a medical analysis but unfortunately it was **uh** negative.

We noticed that students reduced the use of fillers in post-test (from 112 fillers in pre-test to 75 fillers in post-test) because they were reading from papers instead of relying on their memories to perform orally.

Use of gestures and facial expressions too was a compensation strategy that participants used mainly in the pre-test (from 6.42 in the pre-test to 4.11 in the post-test). Two main types of gestures were coded: elaborating, and deictic gestures

Elaborating

- Sub.g02pre-test: Mr. John, you may enter =ges: **showing with her finger** to see the doctor

Deictic gesture

- Sub.g07post-test: uh so the doctor uh so the doctor =ges: **pointing to her copybook** come back uh after half an hour.

Substituting is another non-verbal behavior that is sometimes used as the sole channel of communication. We recognized one substituting case in the pre-test where the students nodded with her head when she wanted to say that John was just dreaming:

- Sub.g05pre-test: he started to preparing himself to that fatal operation and suddenly he found himself on uh ### and suddenly he wake up &=ges: **nodding her head** and found himself he was just dreaming

A conflicting non-verbal message combined with a verbal message within the same interaction was found in post-test by sub-group 07 as follows:

- Sub.g07post-test: You will make some analysis then **fidgiting** I will give you the results after half an hour...
- Sorry John, but I ## have bad news for you, your analysis aren't good, you have &=laugh a cancer brain and ## you have **avoiding eye contact with fidgiting** more than one week to live.

A person who verbally expresses a statement while simultaneously fidgiting or avoiding eye contact could be explained as stemming from feelings of uncertainty, ambivalence, or frustration.

Another compensation strategy the students of group one used was retrieval which is a tip-of-tongue phenomenon. It means that the interlocutor keeps saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form. Though the majority of sub-

groups kept using their papers to perform the task, we noticed that they referred to retrieval strategy many times and this can be explained as a failure to decipher handwritings. Instances of this strategy are in the following texts' coding:

- Sub.g03pre-test: Good morning John, come on in, it's been uh **it's been** a long time...let me check you then, **let me check you then** we'll figure out the problem.
- Sub.g05post-test: Suddenly, the car crushed him John ran to check him uh **suddenly the car crushed him** John ran to see him he saw that the child was completely alive.

Besides, learners took time to express what they wanted to say and made some long pauses (1.71 in the pre-test and 1 in the post-test). The following are examples of long pauses:

- *Sub.g03pre-test: After three days, John received a call phone uh from the nurse called uh called from the clinic to go and get uh get back his medical results. After this, he ### showed them to the doctor.
- *Sub.g04post-test: ...John got very scared, he uh ### run out the Clinique, while running a track crushed him accidently.

Foreignising which is a compensation strategy that highlights the use of an L1/L2 word by adjusting it to the FL phonology (i.e. with FL pronunciation and/or morphology) was noticed once in the post-test:

- *Sub.g06post-test: She knew that she was very sick and that she has the urge to see the doctor. She called the nurse to take a rendez-vous.

French: rendez-vous English: appointment

Note-taking strategy was a planning technique that we directly observed while students were solving the activity. All sub-groups wrote down the plot of their stories to assist performance of the task. Paying attention to grammar and word order, to pronunciation, and to rhythm and intonation was not high in the pre-test and post-test respectively. In other

words, accuracy and fluency were not highly achieved. Participants made many grammatical errors and mispronounced a number of words. Speech intonation was not respected and students failed to express the right rising or falling pitch in many cases. Examples of such lacks are in the coming coded transcripts:

- Sub.g05post-test : when he turn, he found the child stand behind the door, run to catch him but the boy run out and go to the street. John was screaming “look out there is car behind you” the boy didn’t even cares \implies turn=turned/ stand=standing/ “look out there is car behind you”= with a rising pitch/ cares=care.
- Sub.g04pre-test: ...he found an article related to his illness which attracted him when he **noticed** that the article **talked** about a person that has the same symptoms \implies Mispronounced verbs.

VI.1.2. The actual strategy use for G2. Pre/post test

Strategy	Pre-M	Pre-S.D	Post-M	Post-S.D
Note-taking	High		High	
CFM (use of fillers)	16	11.68	17	13.32
P(directed attention)	High	High	High	
CFM (gesture)	5	5.34	6.6	5.93
CFM(self-repair)	0.71	1.84	0.4	0.94
C(appeal for help)	0.28	0.90	0.2	0.57
C(long pause)	1.42	2.71	0.4	1.13

C(restructuring)	1.42	2.70	2.4	3.36
C(retrieval)	5.85	7.08	4.6	3.16
Attention to grammar and word order	Medium		Medium	
Attention to pronunciation	Medium		Medium	
Attention to rhythm and intonation	Medium		Medium	

Table IV.2: Descriptive statistics of ASU for G.2 pre- /post-test

The comparison of pre-test results with post-test ones entails that participants of group 02 reduced the use of the above mentioned strategies. Fillers, gestures, and retrieval were the most used strategies before and after the experimental phase. For fillers, we found that only one transcript (Sub.g01pre-test) contained a variety of fillers as: uh, so, really, and like. Here are some instances of the use of fillers by students of group two:

- Sub.g01pre-test: **So uh** the result will be in two days. **So**, he was **really** stressed during these two days, he was thinking about his family, who’s gonna be **uh** who’s gonna be next. **And**, while he’s waiting, he went **uh** went home to his wife , **really** regretting for what he did cause he **uh** he was bad with her, he was smoking, he was drugging, really bad **uh** person as father or even as husband.
- Sub.g03post-test: **Uh** John **uh** asked the receptionist if he could skip some patients. **Uh** at first **uh** the receptionist rejects **uh** but **uh** and he said to her that **uh** he’s feeling dying he’s feeling dying and **uh** ### he’s feeling dying. **So uh so** the receptionist **uh** allowed him allowed him to get next.

Non-verbal messages were slightly reduced in the post-test (from 5 by 7 sub-groups to 6.6 by 5 sub-groups). We need to illustrate this strategy in the following coded texts:

- Sub.g01pre-test: he wanted to go, exhausted, cause he was suspicious, he had a tumor in his neck **&=ges. Hand on her throat**
- Sub.g03post-test: John woke up feeling under the weather, so so he decided to make an appointment with his doctor. He called his receptionist and he asked her if if **&=ges: elaborating with his hands** there is uh availability there and she answered by saying yes **&=ges: elaborating with his hands again showing approval of the receptionist.**

Strategies 04 (I reduce the message and use simple expressions) and 05(I replace the original message with another because of feeling incapable of executing the original intent) fall under restructuring compensation strategy, where students may substitute the original message with a new one (message replacement) or reduce it by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic because of lack of linguistic resources (message reduction). Restructuring was used ten times in the pre-test by two sub-groups (1.42) and twelve times by three sub-groups (2.4). Illustrations of such strategy are the following:

- Sub.g01pre-test: Uh during the waiting, uh **when he went to see the anal**, anal, analysis he uh **the doctor told him he had a tumor**, he was in his last stage.
- Sub.g03post-test: At first uh the receptionist uh rejected but uh **and he said to her that** uh he’s feeling dying he’s feeling dying, and **### he’s feeling dying.**

VI.1.3. The actual strategy use for G.3 pre/post test

Strategy	Pre-M	Pre-S.D	Post-M	Post-S.D
Note-taking	High		High	
CFM (use of fillers)	30.8	14.60	16.8	10.03

P(directed attention)	High	High	High	
CFM (gesture)	8.6	5.7	5.2	5.93
CFM(self-repair)	1.8	2.53	0.8	1.77
C(appeal for help)	0.4	0.94	0.2	0.56
C(long pause)	6	2.45	3.4	2.64
C(restructuring)	1.6	2.42	1.6	2.88
C(retrieval)	10.2	6.86	4.2	4.98
Attention to grammar and word order	Medium		Medium	
Attention to pronunciation	Medium		Medium	
Attention to rhythm and intonation	Medium		Medium	

Table VI.3: Descriptive statistics of ASU for G.3 pre- /post-test

Unlike the previous two groups (group 1 and 2), group three performs the task orally rather than working with written notes mainly in the pre-test. This is what explains the difference in the use of the strategies, i.e. group three relied heavily on the above techniques in the pre-test more than group one and two.

Here too we need to illustrate students' use of strategies from the coded texts in the transcripts. Fillers were used 154 times in the pre-test (30.8) and reduced to 84 times in the post-test (16.8). The following are examples of the use of fillers:

- Sub.g01pre-test: When he was **uh** waiting in boredom, he told his head to **uh** to check **uh uh** the **uh** bizarre shape of **uh** of the watching in the wall. **Uh** he started **uh** hearing **uh** some strange voices **uh** from the room facing **uh** facing him.
- Sub.g04post-test: She told him that she noticed something odd that **uh** everyone enters doesn't come out. **Uh** they both were patently waiting, **uh** and it's finally the woman's turn it's finally the woman's turn and **so** he **uh** he knew that the mysterious thing **uh** happened **uh** to the woman again.

Gestures also were widely spread in the pre-test (43 times with a mean of 8.6). Let us consider the following instances:

- Sub.g05pre-test: Uh suddenly uh suddenly when when the nurse was uh holding uh a knife in her hand, uh she stepped him, she stepped him uh and he started **&=gest: elaborating with her hands running action** he started running with uh with blood, with his blood uh then uh then he uh while calling theses voices **&=gest: of recalling** uh, a voice calling him Mr. John, Mr. John.
- Sub.g02post-test: Uh now it's uh John's uh turn to enter, he described his conditions uh to the doctor but it seemed uh it seemed that **&=gest: nodding with his head** he had nothing uh to worry about but a simple fatigue uh and over uh mass.

Self repair was another strategy that some members from group three sought to rely on to solve any communication breakdowns. Examples of this technique are illustrated in the coming coded texts:

- Sub.g03pre-test: the atmosphere uh the atmosphere was calm, the waiting room was all uh white and there were a woman uh ### waiting uh ### also his turn//**her turn**.
- Sub.g04post-test: So the dis, the dis, the **disturbed**/// doctor facing him and finally John stabbed him and called the police.

⇒ Incorrect self-repair of the pronunciation of the adjective disturbed.

Moreover, long pauses were indispensable tool to maintain the chain of practice. It was used 30 times (with a mean of 6) before the experimental phase and 17 times (3.4) after it.

Instances of such techniques are the following:

- Sub.g01pre-test: After a minute of uh waiting his uh his turn, he felt abnormal, so he went to the toilet and washed his face but he's still feeling the same. After a while, he took a glass # of water and starts ### starts ### starts thinking.
- Sub.g01 post-test: When John entered the room, he was uh the doctor was waiting for him he uh checked ### he checked him carefully and he realized that uh John has a very rare and uh a dangerous disease.

Restructuring was used equally in the pre-test and post-test (8 times with a mean of 1.6 in each test). We noticed that participants from group three used both types of restructuring: message reduction and message replacement. Let us see some instances where learners used this technique:

- *Sub.g03pre-test: While he was reading the magazine, he saw uh # he saw an announcement about uh ### a teenager who died recently and the nurse called him. He entered uh **he stepped inside the doctor's desk** and uh he started examining him.
- *Sub.g01post-test: When he came uh when he uh **when he thinking of his life became so boring**, he decided to uh to brought a gun and put it on his head.

Besides the above mentioned strategies, we found two different cases where learners used message abandonment strategy and code-switching one. The former implies that the student may leave the message unfinished because of some language difficulty:

- Sub.g05pre-test: Uh yet he didn't find uh her ## He came back to the waiting room and uh held his magazine. After little while, he started having uh he started hearing &=ges: with her hands strange voices calling #.

The latter involves the interference of mother tongue or another language rather than the target one to proceed in the discourse:

- Sub.g05pre-test: he woke up uh he woke up uh on the uh on the nurse's voice uh calling him uh calling him uh to tell him that uh his turn uh &=gest: elaborating the expression "his turn" with her hand ### looked at the teacher to give her the word وصل دوره.

VI.1.4. Control group strategy use versus experimental group strategy use

The comparison of the control group strategy use with the experimental group strategy use before and after the experimental phase does not signal a big difference. Both groups opted for the same range of techniques to perform the task. The experimental group exceeds the control one in the use of fillers (22.16/16.9 pre/post test E.G and 16/8.33 pre/post test C.G), gestures (6.5/5.9 pre/post test E.G and 6.42/4.11 pre/post test C.G), long pauses (3.33/1.9 pre/post test E.G and 1.71/1 pre/post test C.G), restructuring (1.5/2 pre/post test E.G and 1.14/0 pre/post test C.G), and retrieval (7.66/4.4 pre/post test E.G and 4.85/5.5 pre/post test C.G). Grammar, pronunciation, and rhythm and intonation were not highly attained for both groups. Note-taking and directed attention techniques, however, were high. Participants, in the planning phase, preferred to write down the plots of the stories and during the performance phase they focused on the activity without being distracted.

VI.1.5. Perceived strategy use

To identify the frequency and range of strategies used by the subjects to overcome the difficulties they coped with when they performed story completion task, descriptive data, namely mean are used. The whole work is divided into two parts: first, each category of Nakatani's communication strategies is discussed separately in a pre-test/post-test in order to know the average use of each strategy and compare results of the control group with the two

experimental groups to see to what extent was strategy-based instruction helpful. We have to inform the reader here that results obtained from each experimental group (group 2 and 3) were added together. Second, the overall communication strategies used by 2nd year students of English are presented by mean and rank.

VI.1.5.1. Analysis of the pre/post- questionnaire results for both control and experimental group

1. Social affective strategies of the control and experimental groups

Strategies	G.1 pre-questionnaire	G.2/3 pre-questionnaire	G.1 post-questionnaire	G.2/3 post questionnaire
23	3.28	3.14	3.17	3.08
24	3.81	3.35	3.94	3.90
25	3.44	3.11	2.86	3.35
26	4.11	4.09	3.75	4.32
28	3.72	3.92	3.75	3.63
29	4.28	4.90	3.75	3.86

Table VI.4: Social affective strategies

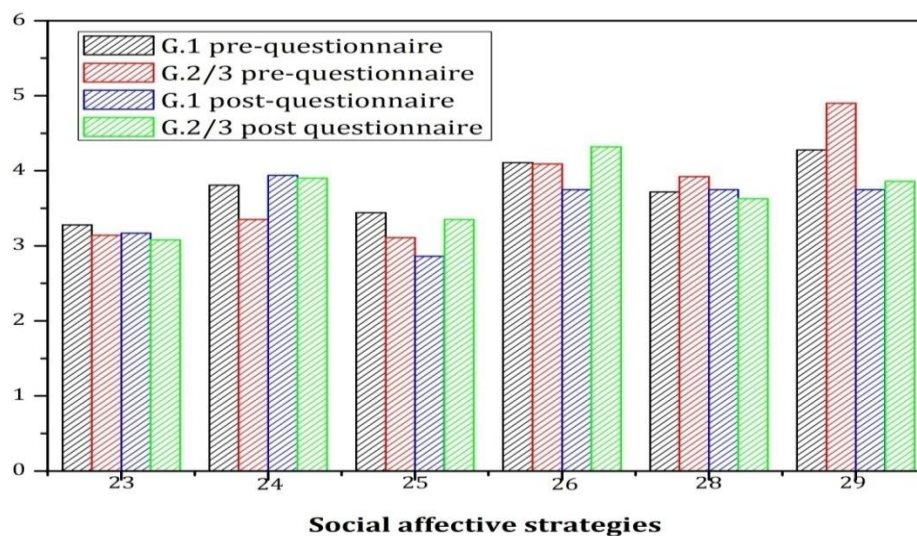


Figure VI.1: Social affective strategies

The first type of strategies has to do with the affective factors that learners use in a social context. The above table shows a slight difference between control and experimental groups' use of these strategies in both pre/post questionnaires. Control group reduces their use of a number of social strategies including risk making mistakes (from 3.44% to 2.86%), enjoyment of the conversation (from 4.11% to 3.75%), and the affective strategy of encouraging themselves to use English (from 4.28% to 3.75%). Things are little bit different for the experimental groups who seem to be interested more in giving good impression to the listener (from 3.35% to 3.90%) and do their best to enjoy the process of oral communication (from 4.09% to 4.32%). Anxiety reduction strategy use was minimized (from 3.92% to 3.63%) and the act of encouraging oneself to express ideas freely reduced too (4.10% to 3.86%).

When we compare strategies used by both groups before the experimentation and after, we find that the experimental groups turn to be more willing to risk making mistakes than the control group, and show a higher tendency to enjoy their oral performances too.

2. Fluency-oriented strategies

Strategies	G.1 pre	G.2/3 pre	G.1 post	G.2/3 post
8	3.72	3.58	3.81	3.42
9	3.69	4.12	3.81	3.95
10	3.81	3.86	3.81	3.79
11	3.78	3.89	3.75	3.71
12	3.25	3.07	2.97	3.39

Table VI.5: Fluency-oriented strategies

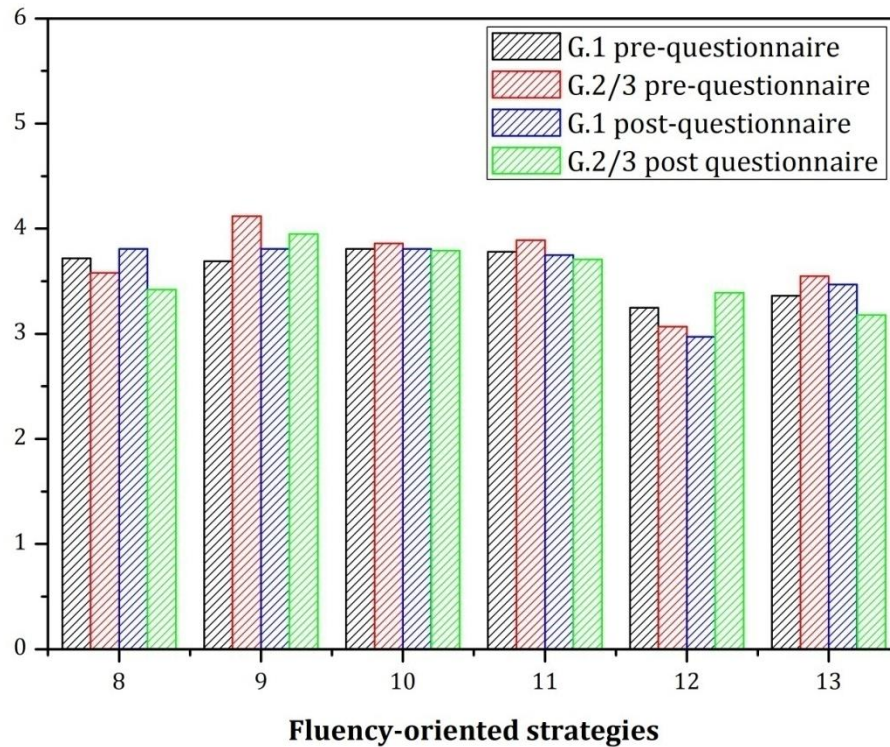


Figure VI.2: Fluency-oriented strategies

The second type of strategies is about techniques that EFL learners use to attain fluency while they perform oral tasks. The pre-questionnaire results demonstrates that both groups tend to use all the strategies that fall under this type approximately equally, except for strategy number nine (I take my time to express what I want to say) where the experimental groups seem to use it more (4.12%). But it reduces its use in the post-questionnaire to 3.95%, together with paying attention to the flow of conversation (from 3.55% to 3.18%). The control group, on the other hand, pays less attention to the rhythm and intonation of speech in the post-questionnaire (from 3.25% to 2.97%). The above results indicate that, after the speaking strategy-based instruction, our experimental groups pay more attention to the rhythm and intonation of their communication than the control group.

3. Negotiation for meaning while speaking

Strategies	G.1 pre	G.2/3 pre	G.1 post	G.2/3 post
19	3.56	3.95	3.31	3.76
20	3.58	3.65	3.78	3.54
21	3.56	3.57	3.14	3.45
22	3.50	4	2.61	3.01

Table VI.6 : Negotiation for meaning while speaking strategies

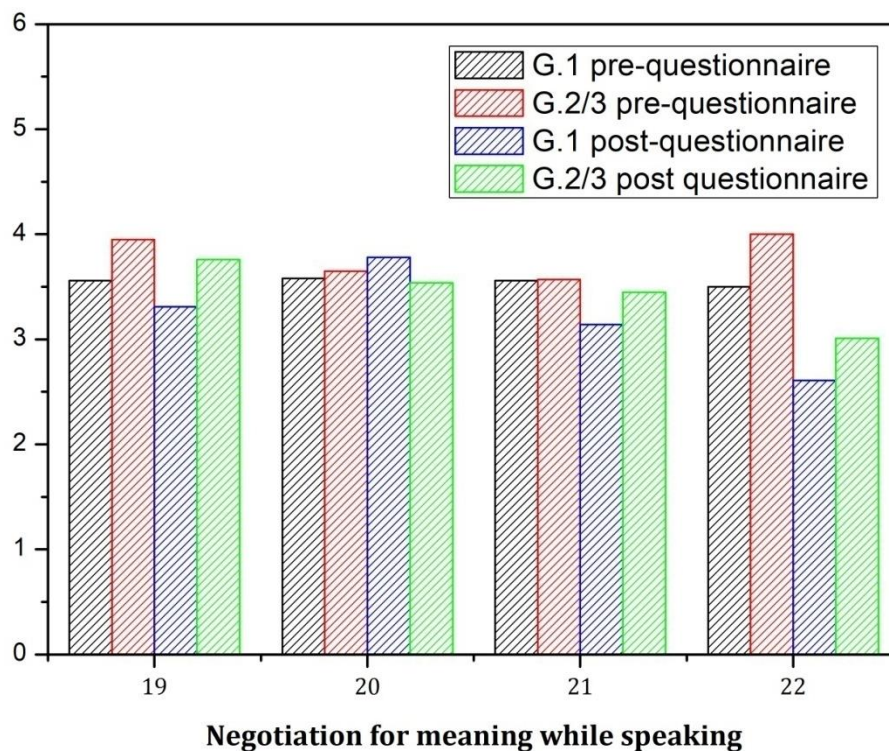


Figure VI.3: Negotiation for meaning while speaking strategies

EFL speakers need to interact with their interlocutors in a way that ensures understanding of the message and avoidance of any communication breakdowns. To do so, they have to pay attention to the listener’s reactions, explain and illustrate more, use repetition techniques, and rely on comprehension checks to avoid any kind of ambiguity.

Group one members pay less attention to the listener’s reactions (from 3.56% to 3.31%), minimize speech repetition (from (3.56% to 3.14%), and reduce the use of comprehension checks than before (from 3.50% to 2.61%). The same thing can be noticed for the other two experimental groups that decrease attention to the listener’s reactions (from 3.95% to 3.76%) and rely less on comprehension checks to clarify their ideas (from 4% to 3.01%).

4. Attempt to think in English

Strategies	G.1 pre	G.2/3 pre	G.1 post	G.2/3 post
1	3.28	3.11	3.06	3.3
2	3.14	3.49	3.19	3.20

Table VI.7: Attempt to think in English strategies

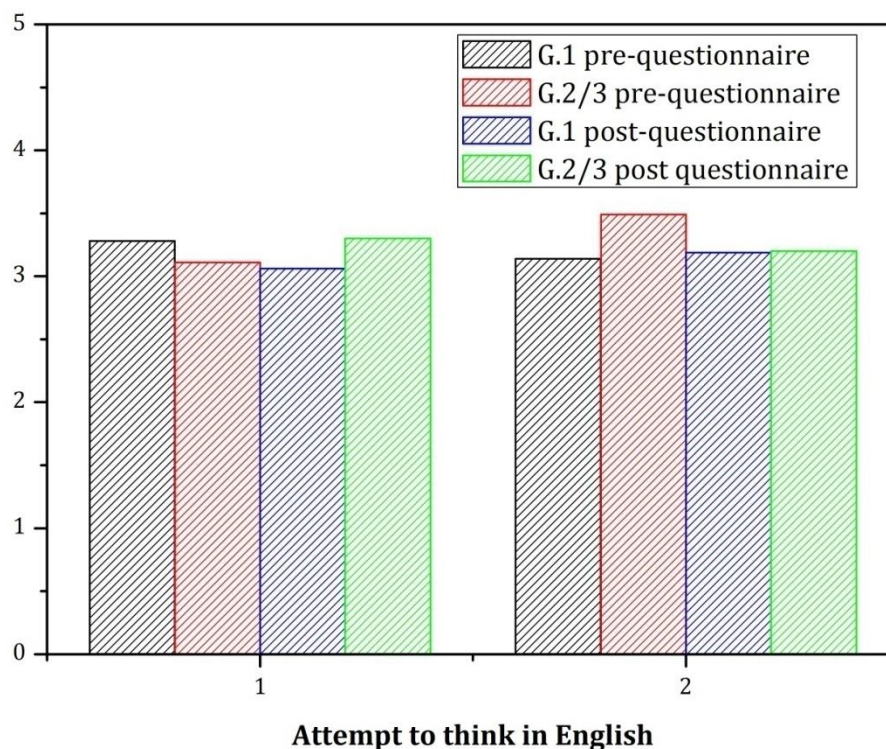


Figure VI.4: Attempt to think in English strategies

Proponents of the communicative approach view the sole use of the target language as both means and end in the language classroom. It is advisable for EFL learners to think as

much as possible in English during actual communication. What is noticeable from the above table is that group one students slightly reduce their thinking in their mother tongue to construct an English sentence (from 3.28% to 3.06%), while group two and three show a weak increase in their use of this strategy (from 3.11% to 3.30%). In item two of this type of strategies, the experimental groups show a less tendency to rely on their prior knowledge to build their communication (from 3.49% to 3.20%).

5. Accuracy-based strategies

Strategies	G.1 pre	G.2/3 pre	G.1 post	G.2/3 post
6	3.94	3.82	3.90	2.94
7	3.72	3.51	3.42	3.35
17	3.86	4.33	3.97	4.05
18	3.72	3.62	3.58	3.45
30	4	4.32	3.69	3.94

Table VI.8: Accuracy-based strategies

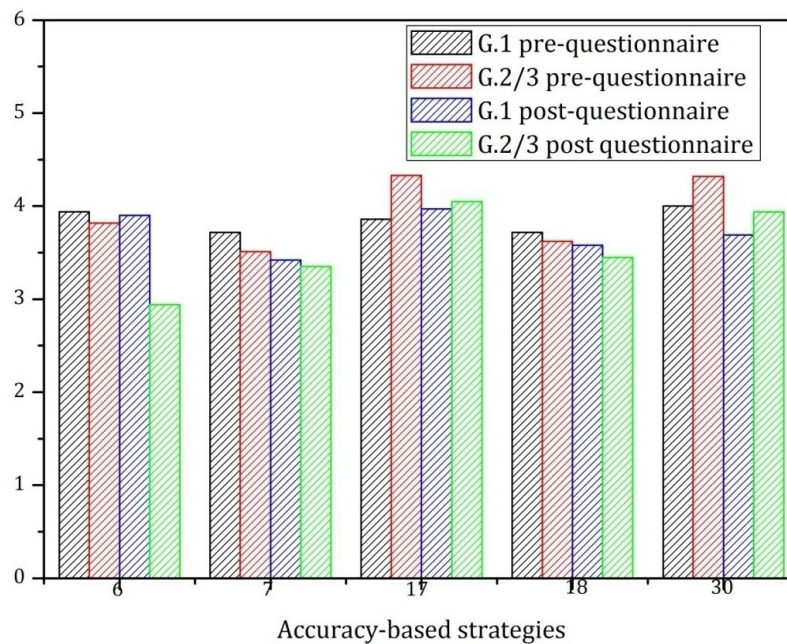


Figure VI.5: Accuracy-based strategies

All strategies that fall under this category seek for accuracy while speaking the target language. They all show the interlocutor's awareness to pay attention to all elements of the language to transmit an understandable message. By comparing pre- and post results of the control group, slight changes may be noticed where first group learners reduce their attention to grammar and word order and are less desirable to speak like native ones. For the experimental groups, things are approximately the same as the control group. The only exception is found in the last strategy (30), where students seem to get more interested to speak appropriately like native speakers even though this is not an easy goal (from 4.32% to 4.94%).

6. Message reduction or alteration strategies

Strategies	G.1 pre	G.2/3 pre	G.1 post	G.2/3 post
3	4.08	4.10	4.08	3.92
4	3.83	4.09	3.83	3.85
5	2.67	2.72	2.89	2.88

Table VI.9: Message reduction or alteration strategies

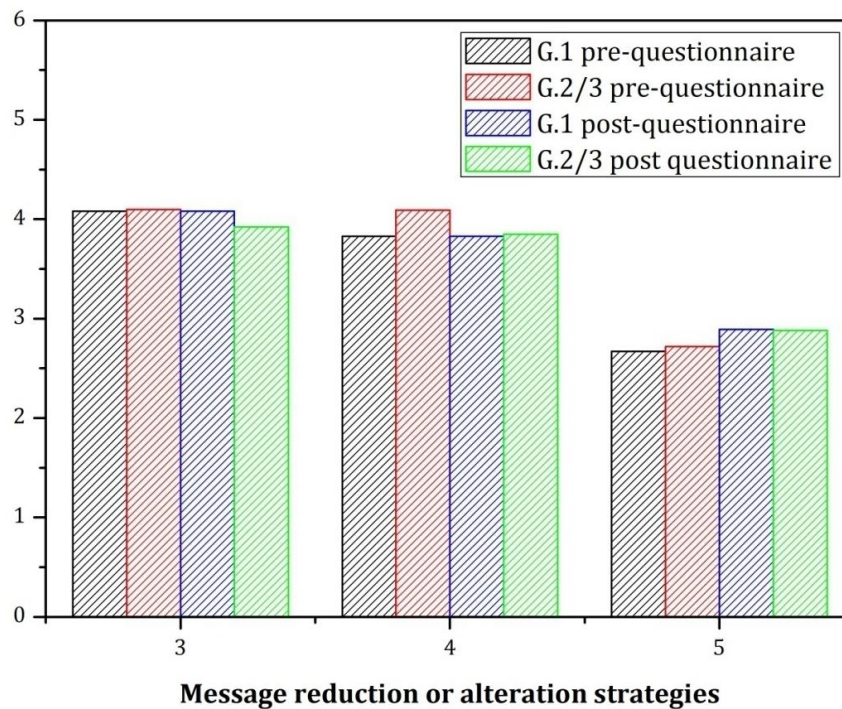


Figure VI.6: Message reduction strategies

This type of strategies embraces techniques that EFL learners may use to avoid any breakdowns in communication. They may use familiar words and adjust or approximate the message by omitting some items of information in a conversation. Findings for the control group decrease with the last strategy (5) of reducing the original message (from 3.67% to 2.89%). We do not find big changes for the experimental groups that slightly minimize their focus on familiar words and use of simple expressions.

7. Non-verbal strategies

Strategies	G.1 pre	G.2/3 pre	G.1 post	G.2/3 post
14	3.33	3.16	2.97	3.32
15	3.25	3.43	3.03	3.43

Table VI.10: Non-verbal strategies

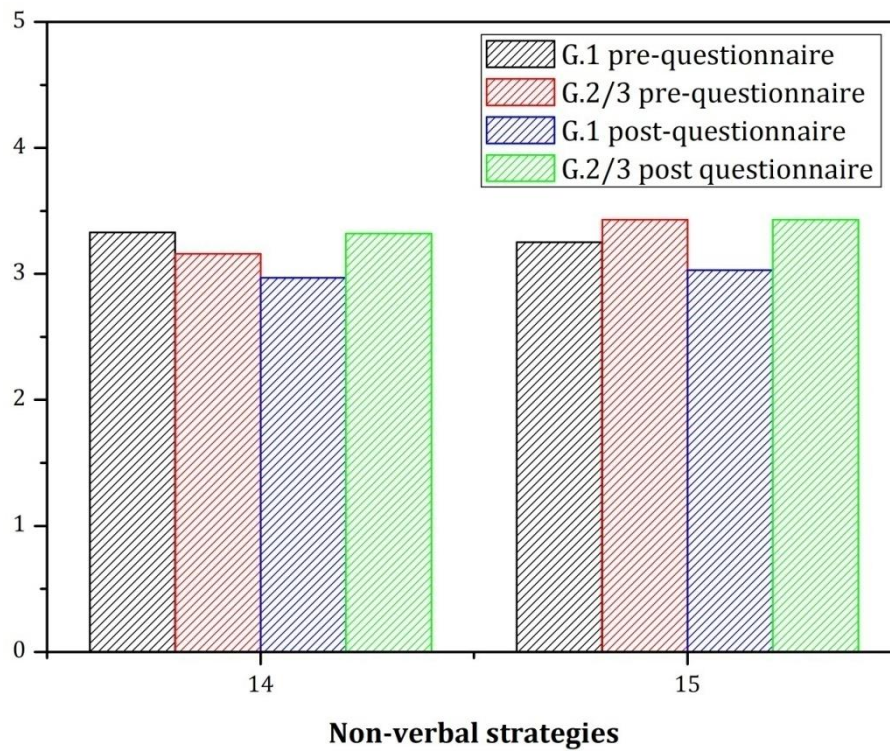


Figure VI.7: Non-verbal strategies

Non-verbal strategies are about body language techniques, like mimes or gestures, can be helpful to overcome communication breakdowns. The use of these strategies by both control and experimental groups in the pre- post questionnaire does not highlight such a big change.

8. Message abandonment strategies

Strategies	G.1 pre	G.2/3 pre	G.1 post	G.2/3 post
16	2.64	2.95	2.75	2.92
27	2.64	2.56	2.33	2.57
31	3.11	3.22	3.39	3.62
32	2.56	2.41	2.28	2.48

Table VI.11 : Message abandonment strategies

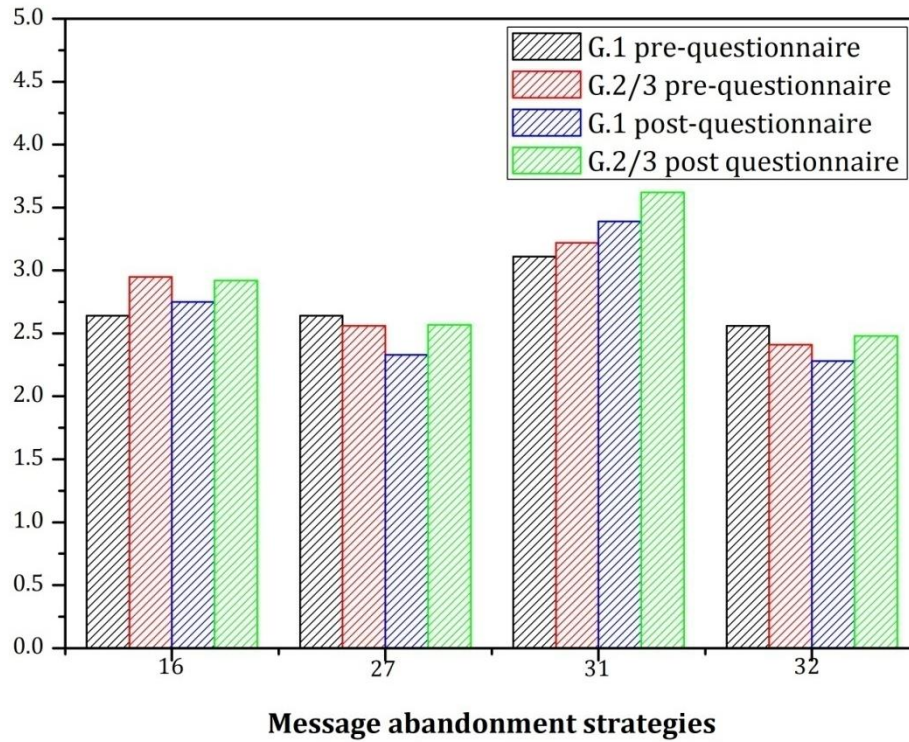


Figure VI.8: Message abandonment strategies

Message abandonment strategies involve mainly avoiding communication partially or totally. Such strategies, though keep the learner emotionally protected, goes against the aim of speaking as much as often as possible. The control group members seem to be more aware about the importance of asking others' help when they cannot communicate (from 3.11% to 3.39%) and minimize their reliance on abandoning the conversation when they fail to transmit their idea (from 2.56% to 2.28%). The experimental groups too changed their view about asking for help and call for its adoption (from 3.22% to 3.62%).

After discussing the average use of each type of the above strategies separately, it is time now to know the frequency and rank of use of those strategies by both groups before and after the experimentation.

9. Analysis of the overall strategies

Category name	G.1 pre mean	G.1 pre rank	G.2/3 pre mean	G.2/3 pre rank	G.1 post mean	G.1 post rank	G.2/3 post mean	G2/3 post rank
Social affective	3.77	2	3.62	5	3.54	3	3.69	1
Fluency-oriented	3.60	3	3.68	3	3.60	2	3.57	2
Negotiation for meaning while speaking	3.56	4	3.79	2	3.21	4	3.44	4
Attempt to think in English	3.21	7	3.3	6	3.12	5	3.25	6
Accuracy-based	3.85	1	3.92	1	3.71	1	3.55	3
Message reduction or alteration	3.53	5	3.64	4	3.60	2	3.55	3
Non-verbal	3.29	6	3.29	7	3	6	3.37	5
Message abandonment	2.74	8	2.78	8	2.69	7	2.89	7

Table VI.12: Overall strategies of the control and experimental groups

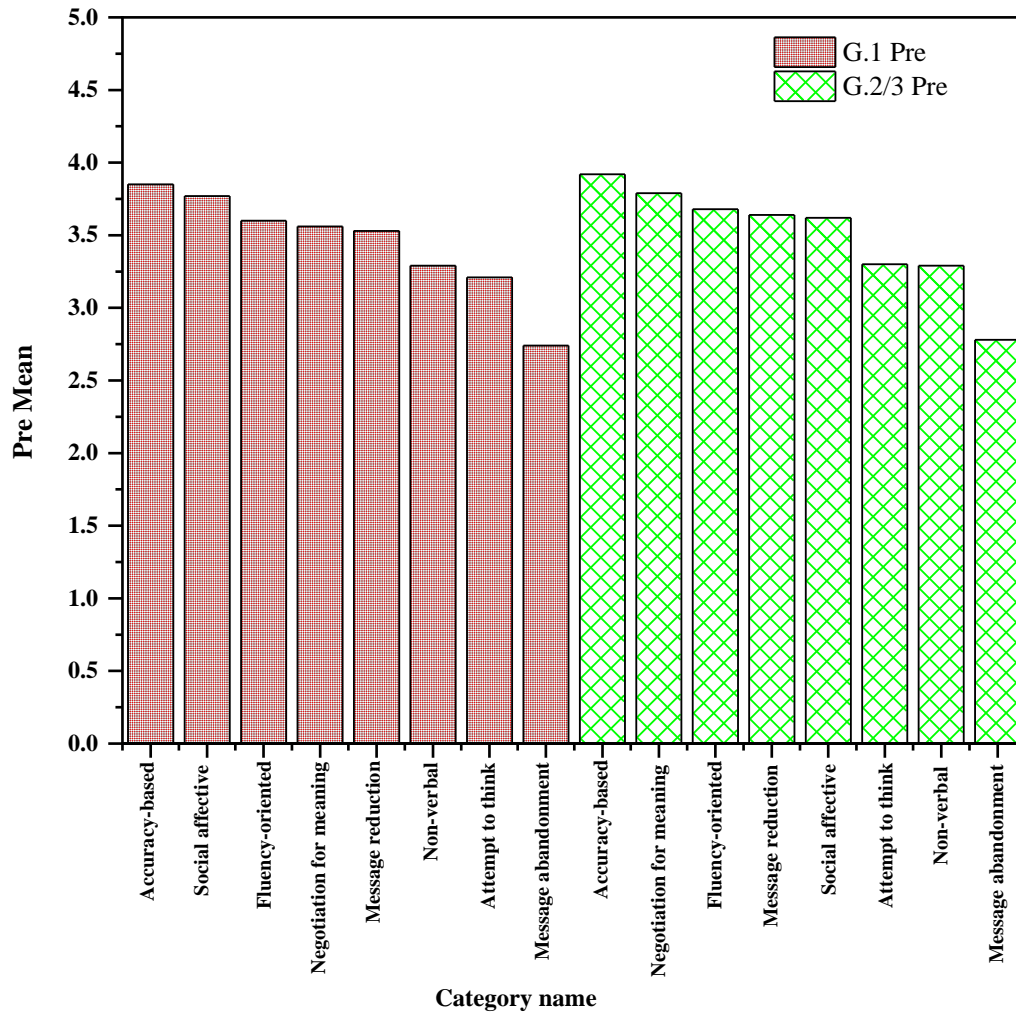


Figure VI.9: Ranking of the strategies for the pre-questionnaire

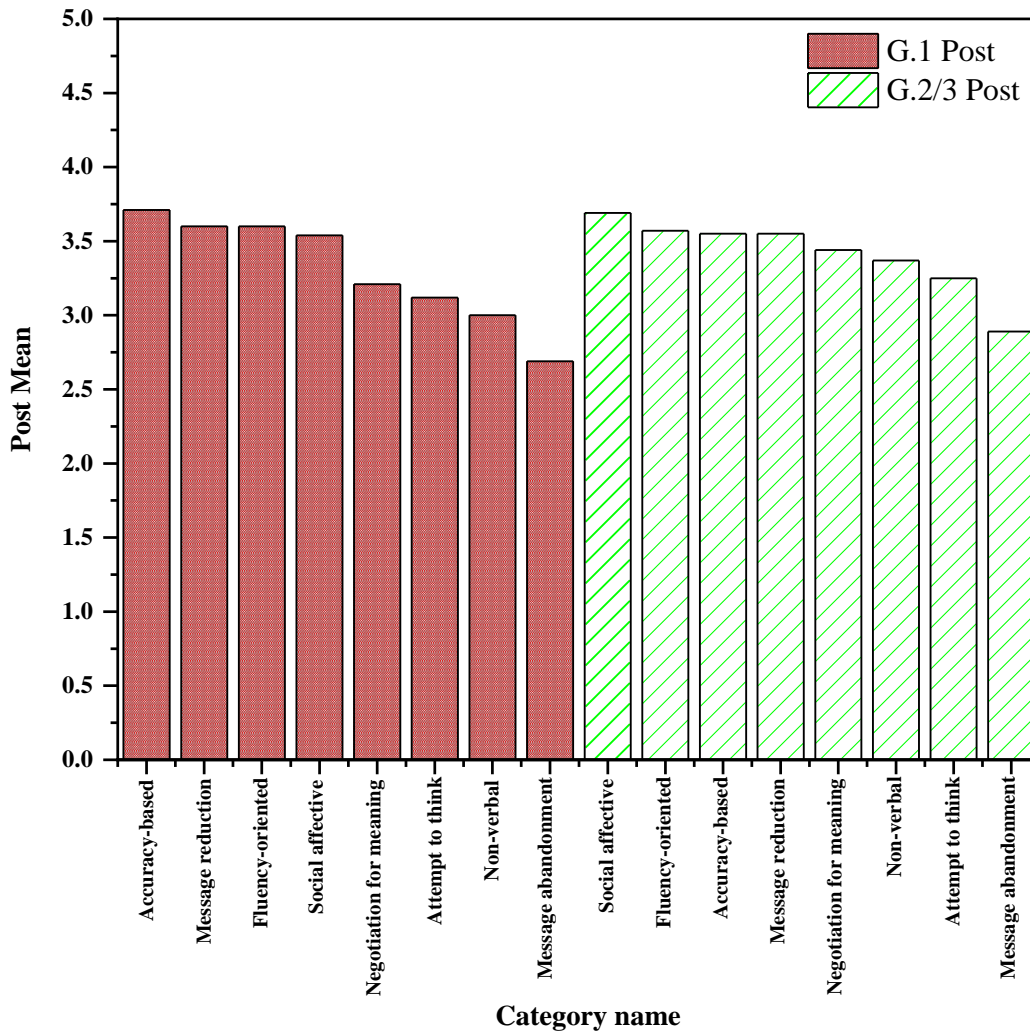


Figure VI.10: Ranking of the strategies for the post-questionnaire

For the control group, if we compare the order of the eight categories of strategies we notice small changes for the following types: social affective strategies, fluency-oriented strategies, attempt to think in English strategies, message reduction or alteration, and message abandonment strategies. Students of this group seem to give priority to speak the target language correctly, by focusing on grammar rules and trying to imitate native speakers. Participants too know the benefits of managing their feelings in oral communication and try to interact in a social context. Fluency is another concern of our group that seeks any opportunity to speak fluently. Non-verbal strategies and message abandonment ones are not widely used by those learners, as they are ranked the last ones.

Things for the experimental groups are little bit different. Before the strategy-based instruction, members of group two and three focused more on strategies that lead them to communicate accurately. They were interested in negotiating meaning and their aim was to transmit an understandable message to the listener. Fluency-oriented strategies were ranked the third where we can say that those learners were aware, from the beginning, of speaking the target language fluently. They were adjusting or reducing messages to avoid any communication breakdowns (the fourth rank) and were relying on social affective techniques too (the fifth rank). Besides, members of the experimental groups did not really support the idea of using both non-verbal strategies (rank seven) and message abandonment ones (rank eight). After being exposed to strategy-based instruction, those participants changed their use of such strategies. Social-affective strategies turn to be their first priority followed by fluency-oriented techniques. Accuracy and message reduction have got the same rank (the third one) and negotiation for meaning while speaking is classified the fourth one. Their interest in non-verbal strategies has increased (from the seventh rank to the fifth one) which may be due to the instruction they got and information they acquired about the importance of such techniques in interaction and communication. Our learners refuse to give up when they fail to make their messages clear and instead prefer to rely on other more helpful strategies that may enable them to express their ideas clearly (message abandonment strategies is the last rank).

VI.1.5.2. Perceived strategy use versus actual strategy use

In order to know if perceived strategy use (measured by The Oral Communication Strategy Inventory questionnaire) reflects actual strategy use (measured in task performance), we compared actual strategy use ACU with perceived one PSU. As stated earlier in this chapter, a number of strategies in the questionnaire were not observable (01, 02, 03, 18, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29, and 30). This fact pushes us to compare only observable

strategies of the questionnaire with strategies achieved from transcripts coding (quantifiable strategies) and those we obtained from task observation (unquantifiable strategies). This comparison is based on whether a strategy is consistent or discrepant with PSU.

1. Consistency

Perceived strategy use and actual strategy use was classed as consistent when the means were approximated. The only cases that demonstrate consistency are:

- The use of fillers (Item 23) in the pre-test by the control group (group 01) and the post-test by the experimental groups (group02+03) matches the result obtained from the questionnaire. In other words both ASU and PSU were high, so this item was classed as consistent.

	Pre-test.G.01	Post-test.G.02+03
PSU	3.28	3.08
ASU	3.11	3.18

Table VI.13: PSU versus ASU for Item 23

- Directed attention, which represents Items 11, 13, 14, and 19 in the strategy questionnaire, was consistent for both groups before and after the experimental phase. ASU and PSU were high.

	Pre-test.G01	Post-test.G01	Pre-test.G02+03	Post-test.G02+03
PSU	3.50	3.37	3.63	3.49
ASU	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH

Table 6.14: PSU versus ASU for Items 11, 13, 14, and 19

2. Discrepancy

Means for ASU and PSU were classed as discrepant if there was a difference between the level of ASU and PSU in the pre-test and post-test. All the remaining observable strategies (except Items 1, 2, 3, 18, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29, and 30) were classed as discrepant which implies that the means of ASU and PSU were different (See tables below for discrepancy cases).

- Gestures, for instance, were not highly used by participants in task performance, but what they replied in the questionnaire shows the opposite. Hence, we can explain by saying that PSU was classed as discrepant with ASU for item 15.

	Pre-t. G01	Post-t. G01	Pre-t. G02+03	Post-t.G02+03
PSU	3.25	3.03	3.43	3.43
ASU	1.25	1.23	1.3	1.11

Table VI.15: PSU versus ASU for Item 15

- The use of appeal for help technique did not match what students claimed in the Strategy Questionnaire. The ASU was classed as discrepant with PSU for item 31.

	Pre-t. G01	Post-t. G01	Pre-t. G02+03	Post-t.G02+03
PSU	3.11	3.39	3.22	3.62
ASU	0.33	0.1	0.06	0.03

Table VI.16: PSU versus ASU for Item 31

- The use of self-repair strategy in task performance did not match students' response in the questionnaire for item 17.

	Pre-t. G01	Post-t. G01	Pre-t. G02+03	Post-t.G02+03
PSU	3.86	3.97	4.33	4.05
ASU	0.55	0.33	0.23	0.11

Table VI.17: ASU versus PSU for Item 17

- Making long pauses was low in story completion for both groups before and after the experimental phase, but students declared in the questionnaire that they took their time to express what they wanted to say.

	Pre-t. G01	Post-t. G01	Pre-t. G02+03	Post-t.G02+03
PSU	3.69	3.81	4.12	3.95
ASU	0.33	0.3	0.66	0.35

Table VI.18: PSU versus ASU for Item 09

- Restructuring technique, which corresponds to Items 04 and 05 in the Strategy Questionnaire, was adopted by few sub-groups in task performance, but PSU was significantly high for both groups in the pre/post test.

	Pre-t. G01	Post-t. G01	Pre-t. G02+03	Post-t.G02+03
PSU	3.25	3.36	3.40	3.36
ASU	0.22	00	0.3	0.37

Table VI.19: PSU versus ASU for Items 04+05

- Retrieval technique too, in task performance, did not match the answers of learners, which states that PSU was classed as discrepant with ASU for item 21.

	Pre-t. G01	Post-t. G01	Pre-t. G02+03	Post-t.G02+03
PSU	3.56	3.14	3.57	3.45
ASU	0.94	1.66	1.53	0.83

Table VI.20: PSU versus ASU for Item 21

- Contrary to PSU where learners mentioned that they highly payed attention to grammar and word order, we noticed through task observation that they did not respect heavily grammar rules.

	Pre-t. G01	Post-t. G01	Pre-t. G02+03	Post-t.G02+03
PSU	3.94	3.90	3.82	2.94
ASU	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM

Table VI.21: PSU versus ASU for Item 06

- For pronunciation and rhythm and intonation, ASU was medium and PSU’s results were high, therefore ASU was classed as discrepant with PSU for Items 10 and 12 respectively.

	Pre-t. G01	Post-t. G01	Pre-t. G02+03	Post-t.G02+03
PSU	3.81	3.81	3.86	3.79
ASU	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM

Table VI.22: PSU versus ASU for Item 10

	Pre-t. G01	Post-t. G01	Pre-t. G02+03	Post-t.G02+03
PSU	3.25	2.97	3.07	3.39
ASU	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM

Table VI.23: PSU versus ASU for Item 12

We can conclude now that PSU (measured by an Oral Communication Strategy Inventory Questionnaire) reflects one third of the actual strategy use (measured in task performance and task observation). These strategies included the use of fillers and all strategies that are related to directed attention (Items 11, 13, 14, and 19). The control group and the experimental one each showed preference to use compensation strategies to perform the oral task.

VI.2. Questionnaire findings

This section addresses the first of the three research questions guiding the study:

- What are the main roles of both teachers and learners to boost learning autonomy?
- How should learners be organized to do oral tasks?
- What are the appropriate methods for assessing oral tasks?

VI.2.1. Teachers' questionnaire

Teachers' questionnaire consists of seven items, each of which has a number of multiple choice responses. The questionnaire aims to gather teachers' perspectives about learner autonomy, their definition of the term, their sense of responsibility, beliefs about their learners, constraints to autonomy, and how it can be fostered in teaching English at university.

Copies of the questionnaire were distributed to seven teachers of English at the department of foreign languages, English branch, University of Mohamed Al-Bachir Al-Ibrahimi. B.B.A and were analyzed by means of descriptive analyses using SPSS(Statistical Package of Social Sciences, Version 19). The goal of the analysis was to develop an understanding of teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Moyenne	Ecart type
a) make sure learners make progress during lessons	7	1.00	3.00	1.5714	.97590
b) make sure learners make progress outside class	7	2.00	3.00	2.7143	.48795
d) identify weaknesses in English	7	1.00	3.00	2.1429	1.06904
c) stimulate learners' interest in learning English	7	1.00	3.00	1.8571	1.06904
e) make learners work harder	7	1.00	3.00	1.8571	1.06904
f) determine the objectives of the English course	7	1.00	3.00	1.2857	.75593
g) decide what should be learnt next	7	1.00	3.00	1.2857	.75593
h) choose what activities to use in class	7	1.00	3.00	1.2857	.75593
i) decide how long to spend on each activity	7	1.00	3.00	1.5714	.97590
j) choose what materials to use to learn English	7	1.00	3.00	2.2857	.95119

k) evaluate progress made	7	1.00	3.00	2.0000	1.00000
l) decide what is to be learnt outside of class	7	1.00	3.00	2.2857	.75593
Language learning autonomy is (please select one)	7	2.00	2.00	2.0000	.00000
Fostering language learner autonomy is a worthwhile goal. (please select one)	7	1.00	1.00	1.0000	.00000
In my classes / lectures students	7	1.00	4.00	2.4286	.97590
(Based on your understanding of autonomy) How would you rank the students you had this year:	7	2.00	2.00	2.0000	.00000
What are the constraints of fostering learner autonomy in your teaching context?	7	1.00	2.00	1.1429	.37796
What is the best approach to foster learner autonomy in your educational context?	7	1.00	2.00	1.8571	.37796

Table VI.24: Teachers' questionnaire analysis

The first introductory item of the questionnaire seeks to know how teachers define language learning autonomy. All participants agreed that it is an ability which can be developed (2.0000%). The next question asks teachers to consider their responsibility in relation to developing learner autonomy in their class. Results indicated that most of the teachers regarded learners as bearing the major responsibility for all aspects of the teaching-learning process in their class. For example, teachers view that it is the students' job to recognize that they are doing progress during lessons (1.5714%). A rate of 2.1429% shows that learners have to identify their weaknesses in English, and 1.8571% means that they have to stimulate their interest in learning English and work harder. It is the learners' responsibility to decide about time needed for each task (1.5714%). Selection of materials to learn the language (2.2857%), evaluation of progress made (2.0000%), and decision what is to be learnt outside of class (2.2857 %) are all students job.

From the above results, it would appear that teachers believe that learners are somehow responsible for their learning. This finding leads to a question which is whether those students are really autonomous and bear some kind of responsibility in their learning. The next questions about teachers' beliefs about their learners may shed light on the question.

Teachers' beliefs regarding their students' ability to be autonomous is the concern of the third and the fourth items. Question number three asks teachers how often do their learners suggest to do things different than what is proposed by the lecturer. A rate of 2.4286% indicates that those learners sometimes take part in deciding about what to learn. In the same vein, teachers were required to rank their learners' capability to be autonomous. For them, those students are somewhat capable of being autonomous (2.0000%). This rate reflects the fact that those teachers have varied degrees of levels in their class and that they do not trust all their students' capacities to be autonomous.

Lecturers were then asked to identify the type of constraints of fostering learner autonomy in their educational context. Approximately all teachers agreed that learner autonomy is only achieved by some learners (1.1429%) and this percentage matches our interpretation of the above results in the questionnaire. The main reasons behind this lack will be discussed and explored further in teacher's interviews.

The sixth item wonders whether fostering language learner autonomy is a worthwhile goal or not. All seven teachers agreed that their students' autonomy needs to be promoted. The last item of the questionnaire is about methods of fostering learner autonomy. Our respondents view that the best approach to foster learner autonomy in their educational context is to train students to develop their skills and strategies to become autonomous (1.8571%).

VI.2.1.1. Summary of teachers' questionnaire

All teachers agreed that language learner autonomy is a construct of capacity rather than an inborn one. They believe that their learners should share responsibility and be involved in the learning process. For them, students are designed a number of roles including the evaluation of their progress, the selection of materials, identification of their weaknesses, and others. Those teachers' classes seem to have autonomy level, but for some learners only. The best solution to increase and foster autonomy is by training learners to develop their skills and strategies to become autonomous.

VI.2.2. Learners' questionnaire

As said earlier in the methodological part, learner's questionnaire consists of two parts: the first part is about Learner Autonomy Questionnaire which was used to address learner autonomy from the students' prospective. Learner Autonomy Questionnaire has two parts. The first part contains 11 items and second 7, totally 17 items. The first 11 items has five options in Likert scale from never to always (A. never, B. rarely, C. sometimes, D. often, E.

always). The second part of the questionnaire is in multiple-choice format. The participants chose the closer answer to their beliefs and their attitudes or ideas. The third part of the questionnaire is five-point Likert scale survey was used to investigate University students' perceptions towards peer assessment.

We distributed 93 copies and got them back all, which means that degree of responding was 100%. We found 18 copies incomplete: 75/93 and this fact makes the actual degree of responding turns to be 80.65. Incomplete data of the 18 copies were deleted from the data set and responses of the remaining students were analyzed by means of descriptive analyses using SPSS (version). This software gave the mean and the standard deviation for each variable in the questionnaire. For the first part of Learner Autonomy Questionnaire, we gave 1 to the first option in the Likert scale (i.e. never), 2 for rarely, 3 for sometimes, 4 for often, and five for always. The same thing was done for the second part of Autonomy Questionnaire, where numbers from 1 to 5 were given to each choice. Concerning the last part of the questionnaire, number 1 was for strongly agree, 2 for agree, 3 for undecided, 4 for disagree, and 5 for strongly disagree. The analyses of the three parts of the questionnaire will be done separately, starting with the first part of learner autonomy questionnaire.

VI.2.2.1. Learner questionnaire part one

	N	Minimu m	Maximu m	Moyenn e	Ecart type
1.I think I have the ability to learn English well.	75	2.00	5.00	4.6933	.71610
2. I make good use of my free time in English study.	75	1.00	5.00	3.3200	.93230

3. I preview before the class.	75	1.00	5.00	2.7733	.93828
4. I find I can finish my task in time.	75	2.00	5.00	3.8400	.95917
5. I keep a record of my study, such as keeping a diary, writing preview etc.	75	1.00	5.00	3.0133	1.16820
6.I make self-exam with the exam papers chosen by myself.	75	1.00	5.00	2.5200	1.24510
7. I reward myself such as going shopping, playing etc. when make progress.	75	1.00	5.00	3.1600	1.39536
8. I attend out- class activities to practice and learn the language.	75	1.00	5.00	3.0267	1.17374
9. During the class, I try to catch chances to take part in activities such as pair/group discussion, role play, etc	75	1.00	5.00	3.7600	.98420
10, I know my strengths and weaknesses in my English study.	75	2.00	5.00	4.5867	.77273
11. I choose books, exercises which suit me, neither too difficult nor too easy.	75	1.00	5.00	3.5333	1.15470

Table VI.25: Students' questionnaire analysis part one

The first item in the questionnaire was about learner's ability to learn English appropriately, where approximately all responses were with Always, with a mean of 4.6933%. Participants then were asked whether they study English in their free time, and 3.3200% answered with sometimes. Previewing before the class was the third item of the survey and 2.7733% answered with sometimes too. Student's ability to finish a given task in due time was the next element with a mean of 3.8400 %. This average shows that the majority of learners often have the ability to complete their assignments in time. Number five is about learners' keeping records of their studies using diaries or writing preview. A rate of 3.0133% means that learners sometimes do that. As a way to revise for the exams, second year English learners were asked if they select exam papers and try to test themselves. A rate of 2.5200% demonstrates that this is sometimes done by learners. Self rewarding, which is a good affective strategy that learners may adopt whenever they complete a given study task successfully, got a mean of 3.1600% which can be interpreted as not being a habit for those learners to encourage and practice their hobbies when they fulfill something. Number eight asks learners about making out-class activities to study and learn the language. A rate of 3.0267% indicates that our EFL learners do not really make extra efforts outside University to acquire the language and improve their language proficiency. In the same vein, respondents were required to say whether they catch chances in the classroom to participate in activities or not. The majority of them (3.7600%) often take part in class-activities as pair/group discussion, role play, and so on. Participants were then asked if they recognize their strengths and weaknesses in studying English and it is apparent from the above table (4.5867%) that they always know their levels in studying the foreign language. The last item within the first part of this survey is about whether student's selection of books or exercises is based on their interests, levels, and needs. A rate of 3.5333% shows that learners' selection of materials to study and acquire the language often suits their needs.

VI.2.2.2. Learner autonomy part two

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Moyenne	Ecart type
I study English here due to:	75	1.00	5.00	3.8267	1.47386
I think the learner-Teacher relationship's That of:	75	1.00	5.00	2.5467	1.70289
I think my success or failure in English study is mainly due to:	74	1.00	5.00	4.2162	1.25262
Whether students should design the teaching plan together with teachers or not, my opinion is:	75	1.00	5.00	2.3067	.85382
When the teacher ask questions for us to answer, I would mostly like to:	75	1.00	5.00	2.3733	1.07519
When I meet a word I don't know, I mainly:	75	1.00	5.00	4.0667	1.11904

Table VI.26: Students' questionnaire part two

As mentioned previously, the second part of the questionnaire comprises six items, each with a different multiple-choice format. The first element in that part discusses students' choice of studying English: was it due to their parents' demands, curiosity, getting a good job, interest of English culture, or the 3 and the 4 choices together. The above table shows that the majority of respondents (3.8267%) opted for the English language because of their own interest of English culture, including films, sports, and music. Then, learners were asked about their view-pints regarding teacher/learner relationship, is it the one of receiver and

giver, raw materials and maker, customer and shopkeeper, partners, or that of explorer and director. A rate of 2.5467% indicates that our students believe that their relation with their teachers is that of a customer and shopkeeper. The third item asks learners about the reasons behind their success or failure in English: is it due to luck or fate, English studying environment, studying facilities, English studying, or themselves. The majority (4.2162%) said that it is due to English studying.

Question number four demanded learners to give their opinions about being involved to design the teaching plan together with their teachers. Apparently, students agree (2.3067 %) to share the job with their teachers and take responsibility to do that. The next item of this part requests students to talk about their reaction when the teacher gives questions to be answered. Do they wait for others' answers, think and be ready to answer, look up books, clarify questions with teachers, or join a pair/group discussion. It seems, from the mean obtained in the above table (2.3733%), that our learners take time to think about the question and then be ready to reply. The last item within the second part of Learner Autonomy Questionnaire asks learners about what do they do when they meet a new word. Do they let it go, ask others, guess the meaning, ask others and look up dictionary, or look up dictionary alone? A rate of 4.0667% indicates that students generally ask others about that new word and look up its meaning in a dictionary.

Summary of Learner Autonomy Questionnaire

Findings from the first two parts of the questionnaire can now be summarized. Results obtained from the first part of Learner Autonomy Questionnaire highlight that second year students of English have good attitudes and practices to learn and acquire the English language inside and outside the classroom. The majority of the students, as they filled up the questionnaire, know how to benefit from their free time to enhance their language

proficiency. They do their best to participate in class-tasks and select materials that suit their needs and levels too. They follow a good affective strategy of rewarding when they attain their goals. Rewards provide them with regular and powerful reminders that they are being successful. Our learners do not rely solely on the teacher to learn the language; rather they seem to make their own efforts to attend out-class activities to widen their knowledge about the English language. In other words, they are aware of their own responsibilities to learn the language.

For the second part of the questionnaire, the results demonstrate that our learners have a degree of autonomy, because their choice to study English reveals their interests of the English language in general. They believe that they are highly responsible of any steps forward or backward in acquiring the language. For them, students should have a hand in designing the teaching plan together with their teachers. They are active learners who take part in class activities, and make use of some social strategies (asking others' help) to enrich their vocabulary knowledge.

VI.2.2.3. Learner questionnaire part three

	N	Minimu m	Maximu m	Moyenne	Ecart type
Peer assessment is helpful to students' learning.	75	1.00	5.00	2.0933	1.16449
Peer assessment makes students understand more about teacher's requirement	75	1.00	5.00	2.0400	.87673
Peer assessment activities motivate students to learn.	75	1.00	5.00	2.0133	.95143

Peer assessment activities increase the interaction between the teacher and the students.	75	1.00	5.00	2.4800	.99131
Peer assessment helps students develop a sense of participation.	75	1.00	5.00	1.9867	.92259
Peer assessment activities increase the interaction among students.	75	1.00	5.00	2.2533	1.06661
I think students are eligible to assess their classmates' performance.	75	1.00	5.00	3.0400	.92181
The comments my peers gave me were fair and reasonable.	75	1.00	5.00	2.7867	.93423
I am comfortable with peers assessing and commenting on my class work.	75	1.00	5.00	2.3600	1.00861
I feel I am a good judge of my peer's English language ability	75	1.00	5.00	2.5733	1.09265
I think that the teacher should be in sole charge of assessing my classwork. .	75	1.00	5.00	2.5200	1.10722
I feel that peer feedback on class is as valid as teacher feedback	75	1.00	5.00	3.0267	1.07770

Table VI.27: Students' questionnaire part three

The first item of this part is about whether peer assessment helps students in their learning or not. A rate of 2.0933% reflects that students believe on the benefits of this type of evaluation. Then, participants were asked about the usefulness of peer assessment to

understand what they are required to accomplish in a given task. The majority (2.0400%) claim that it is a good way to understand more about teacher's requirement. The third item focuses on the aspect of motivation and respondents were requested if peer assessment activities motivate them to learn or not. Learners' answers (2.0133%) reveal that peer assessment is a valuable method to learn the English language. The next question talks about the interactional process between the teacher and his/her learners while using this type of assessment. Again, learners agree that this alternative method of assessing maximizes the interaction between the teacher and the learner (mean of 2.4800%). The fifth element entails that peer assessment pushes learners to develop a sense of participation. By reviewing and evaluating their peer's performance, learners feel that they are active and that they have a hand in the learning process (1.9867%). Question number six talks about the interaction that peer assessment activities may increase among students. A rate of 2.2533% means that peer evaluation is an assessment tool that pushes learners to interact and exchange ideas and thoughts about their oral performance. The next item seeks to know students' beliefs about the eligibility of their classmates' assessment. Here the rate we obtained (3.0400%) indicates that most students are hesitated and do not really trust feedback given by their classmates' members. In the same vein, participants were asked if their peers' comments are fair and reasonable. We got approximately the same rate of answers (2.7867%), which proves that those respondents lack confidence on their peers' judgment. Item number nine is about students being comfortable with their peers assessing and commenting on their class work.

The interpretation of the results here (2.3600%) is that learners do not get disturbed or feel afraid when assessed by their peers. The coming question requires learners to show their beliefs of being good judges of their peers' English language ability. Here too participants are not really sure about their capacities of evaluating others' performances (2.5733%). Question number eleven sticks to traditional methods of assessing where the teacher assumes the whole

responsibility of assessment. A rate of 2.5200% refers to our students' uncertainty about the idea of leaving the task of assessment to the teacher solely. The last item within the third part asks learners whether peer feedback is as valid as that of the teacher. Our respondents do not all agree with the point that their peers will provide a valid and reliable feedback as that of their teacher (3.0267%).

Summary of the third part of the questionnaire

As far as peer assessment is concerned, theoretically speaking our learners seem to appreciate the new alternative method of being assessed by peers, but the practice of that tool in their classroom environment and with their classmates' members is not highly accepted. Those students do not trust their peers' evaluation, they consider their comments as unfair and unreasonable, and they do not equate feedback given by the teacher with the one given by their peers.

VI.3. Interviews findings

The interviews took place at the end of the academic year 2017/2018, exactly on the 30th of June 2018 for students' interviews and on the 3rd of July 2018 for teachers' interviews. I interviewed three students from each target group for a total of six participants, who were selected on the basis of their different levels of English proficiency. Teachers' interviews followed the students' interviews in the second phase. I worked with teachers of oral expression module, with the exception of 3rd year teacher who refused to take part in the interview, of 1st year level and 2nd year level. Students' interviews started at 10:54a.m and ended at 12:16:09pm and teachers' interviews were at 12:20 pm and ended at 12:56:35 pm. Both students and teachers interviews were carried out in English and then transcribed.

This chapter is going to present findings from the student interview data first followed by teacher interview data. The final section will discuss overall results.

VI.3.1. Student interview data

The six students interviewed were from the three different groups (1,2, and 3) and were selected because of their different English language proficiency.

After the transcription of the interviews, we coded them according to students' answers and then put them into categories. We obtained four themes which are directly related to our research questions: students' perception of their English proficiency, oral authentic tasks and group work, speaking strategies, and peer-assessment.

VI.3.1.1. Students' perception of their English proficiency

The first question was a general one where students were asked about their English level. Khawla, Anis, and Linda said that they were good language learners and all seem to make extra efforts outside the classroom to improve their language by taking online tests, talking to natives, following particular programs, and taking things gradually. Abdessamad, Abdelkrim, and Mabrouk argued that they were average language learners and said that they had the ability to talk to natives, watch English movies, reading English books, and so on. The second question was about the environment that surrounds students inside and outside university and whether it helps them to improve and becomes autonomous. Khawla and Anis responded negatively and claimed that people criticizes those who speak English mainly outside university and describe them as arrogant. Mabrouk too claimed that there was a lack of interaction between students of English and this fact inhibited them to progress.

Abdessamad, Abdelkrim, and Linda gave a positive view and supported the idea that there is a kind of interaction and communication among learners. The students then were asked about what learners should do to improve their speaking skills. All the interviewees suggested that listening is the key to be a good speaker of the language. Anis listens to audio books and then imitates its speaker; Khawla advises learners to watch movies, listen to music and repeat

after the lyrics, and use dictionaries to look for the right pronunciation of words. Linda insists on listening and reading; Mabrouk and Abdelkrim talk about reading books and watching English documentaries or movies; Abdedssamad focuses on communicating in English and forgetting about the mother tongue.

VI.3.1.2. Oral authentic tasks and group work

The first question that falls under this category is a structured one because learners were given a number of choices and were asked to classify them according to their individual experiences. The following table includes students' classification.

	Watching movies/ TV in English	Reading English books/newspaper/ novels	Listening to music	Listening to radio and news programs	Talking with natives	Talking with myself
Khawla	1	2	3	4	5	6
Anis	1	3	2	/	4	5
Linda	2	1	/	3	4	5
Mabrouk	3	1	/	5	2	4
Abdessamad		2	1	/	3	4
Abdelkrim	1	5	2	/	3	4

Table VI.28: Interviewees' classification of activities

Cooperative work was the main focus of the next question. All respondents, except Anis and Abdelkrim, call for group work as it permits them to exchange ideas, improve their pronunciation, and benefit from each other's experiences. Anis and Abdelkrim, on the other hand do not support group work and prefer to perform individually. They argue that

cooperative work do not give them a chance to show their language capacities and inhibits them to develop their skills. The interviewees' answers to question six show that they did not get the idea.

VI.3.1.3. Speaking strategies

The first question talks about memory strategies that EFL learners may use to learn and memorize new English words. The students claim that they put the new word in a sentence of their own and keep using it to be learnt and memorized. The second question discusses compensation strategies that learners may rely on to avoid any breakdown when communicating. Our learners' strategies are varied and range from the use of synonyms, request for help, use of body language, relaxation, and the use of mother tongue.

VI.3.1.4. Peer-assessment

The interviewer explained the term of peer-assessment first before she starts questioning her students. The learners were asked first whether peer-assessment is helpful to their learning or not. Abdessamad does not support this technique of assessing and he argues that the student may feel sometimes shy and cannot express his/her ideas. The other participants view classmates' evaluation as a way to discover their errors and improve their levels.

Khawla links the idea with the evaluator level. She claims that the student's ability to evaluate his/her classmate depend on his mastery of the language. Linda adds that it helps students to focus and pay attention to their peer's performance. The students were then asked if they trust their classmates' evaluation. They said that they did not believe in their peer's abilities to judge their oral performances, with the exceptions of good elements. After, they were requested to judge their own abilities to do the task of evaluating their peers.

Abdessamad was the only interviewee who responded negatively. The last question among this category is about the necessity to incorporate learners in assessing their peers. Khawla does not really appreciate the idea of interfering learners in the assessment process and she argues that their levels do not permit them to do that. Abdessamad too claims that the whole task should be left for the teacher; whereas the remaining members encourage the idea of giving learners a chance to participate with the assistance of the teacher.

VI.3.2. Teacher interview data

This section focuses on the findings from the teacher interviews with Hanane and Abdennour who were the teachers of 1st year groups and 2nd year Groups respectively.

After the interviews were transcribed the coding process began. Coding categories were formed from the core questions that were common to all interviewees, for example, “What do you know about learner autonomy?”, “Do you apply learner autonomy on your students?”, “What sort of speaking activities can contribute autonomy?”, “How do learning strategies contribute to learner autonomy?”, or “What is your opinion about peer-assessment?” The answers to these questions were singled out, coded and then put into categories. The identified categories, which were developed from the core interview questions, are: Teacher’s view of learner autonomy, teacher’s application of learner autonomy, teacher’s use of oral tasks, teacher’s view of learning strategies, and the last category is about teacher’s view of peer assessment. The reader may notice that these categories embrace the main themes of this research which are learner autonomy, group work oral authentic tasks, teachable speaking strategies, and peer assessment.

VI.3.2.1. Teacher’s beliefs about learner autonomy

Both interviewees agreed that learner autonomy is about students being responsible for their learning and independent into acquiring new knowledge. Hanane links autonomy to the

ability of producing the language when she said “if students do not take responsibility for their learning, they’ll never speak, they’ll never take the opportunity to produce the language”. For her, autonomy is not an initial step which means that, regarding first year students who do not know anything about the language, teachers should not expect from their novice learners to become autonomous in a short period of time. We understand from her words that learner autonomy needs an appropriate level of knowledge and experience to be achieved. When asked about the difference between autonomous and non-autonomous learners, Abdenour characterizes the former as more knowledgeable than the non-autonomous one. He adds that he/s is more open to learn new things and investigates the opportunities to learn from a variety of authentic resources: “an autonomous learner will take advantage of what technology has brought over now”. Whereas the over dependence of non-autonomous learner on the teacher will not suffice him/her. Hanane regards the difference between both types of learners in terms of motivation. Autonomous learners are motivated and have that eagerness to learn. They give additions to what the teacher has not tackled in his/her lecture, which means that he/she is making efforts outside the classroom. The two teachers keep advising their learners to explore the language outside the class to improve their speaking level. Both interviewees’ classes seem to have a little degree of autonomy, which is a feature of a minority of interested and motivated learners who keep asking for resources that may help them to improve. The question that raises the issue of teaching/learning environment in Algeria received different answers. Hanane had a negative perception about the situation of teaching/learning in the Algerian Universities and claims that it hinders the development of our learners’ autonomy. She argues that the status of the language, the class management, and the mentality of students are stumbling blocks towards achieving autonomy. Overcrowded classes do not help teachers to manage their classes properly, and students’ carelessness to learn make them less motivated and aim just to get

good grades: “they just want the mark at the end; this is the only motivation they are coming for”. Abdenour, on the other hand, looked positively at the issue and claims that teacher’s freedom to design their syllabuses and plan their lectures and exams are a benefit that he/s has to take advantage of. The instructor should teach his/her learners to think and not to absorb the information delivered in class and give it back as it is without any modifications or additions or even critics. He comments “So, we have the freedom to whatever we think is right for them [...]. What is bad is tying their hands to something or twisting it out into giving an exact replica of what we gave them. That does not help them to think”.

Hanane’s answer about how do learning strategies contribute to learner autonomy was brief. She said that the acquisition of these techniques might help learners to become autonomous. While Abdenour claims that it is all about student belonging. I can understand from this word that he want to talk about raising student’s awareness about those learning mechanisms because they can help them improve their language proficiency.

Though both teachers do not seem to have applied peer-assessment in their classes before, but they gave their opinions about advantages and shortcoming of this type of evaluation. Hanane argued that peer-assessment might lower student’s anxiety because he/s would feel at ease as it was not the teacher who is providing the feedback. Peer-assessment, for her, is not suitable for low-proficiency learners because they will not take things seriously when assigned the task of assessing their classmates. Abdenour too appreciates the idea of letting students assessing each other as it keeps them attentive and interested in class. The possible danger that is connected to this technique of assessment is the fact that it may create a sense of hatred and refusal among learners. He argues that: “In the Algerian we do not handle criticisms very well. We are dictators by the way; we do not accept other’s opinion that is the problem”

VI.3.2.2. Teacher's practices regarding learner autonomy

Hanane and Abdenour said that they applied learner autonomy on their students. Abdenour further illustrates with an example which is about giving students topics, letting them think about, and then voicing their opinions using their own styles, ideas, and experiences. Hanane explained that she motivated her learners whenever she noticed that someone was bringing something new to the class. She encourages her learners to push them forward in the process of learning. She assumes that she seeks to apply autonomy more in her classes by learning and exploring new activities and strategies. Students, of both teachers, are given an opportunity to decide about topics to be discussed in oral expression sessions. Hanane never imposes on her students what to talk about during the speaking session. Course content sometimes is the teacher responsibility, due to the fact that her students are new to the language so the teacher has to introduce many things before giving them a chance to select.

Abdenour was open to his students' suggestions when they claimed that some of the activities were little bit boring and were not so encouraging. He explained

“I am open to anything when they do suggest, some of them do not care, and some of them are a bit bored. You know the ones that are motivated those have great ideas actually. I am open to any suggestions, anything that interests them; we are there to make it happen”

VI.3.2.3. Teacher's use of oral tasks and group work

The teacher of first year level talked about two speaking activities that she applied in her classes and thought they can contribute autonomy in her learners. The first task was based on listening and speaking, when she made her learners listened to different passages. She then selected two students and made them listened to the same passage. One of the students went outside class and the other retold what he had listened to his/her classmates. The first one

who left the room came back and repeated also what he listened to. The classmates after judged who the best listener was. The second activity was oral presentations, where the learners were given total freedom to select topics to discuss. The teacher of second year level, however, declared that his students were used to practice grammar and vocabulary tasks mainly, and the activities that they were introduced to during the experimentation phase were a new experience for them. He noticed that students were motivated and less bored. Group work too was something new for his learners. Groups were selected according to students' level, which means that the teacher made sure that each group contained a hard working student, an average one, and a low one. He adds that students benefited greatly from those collaborative oral authentic activities "They worked together, they learnt to share their opinions, they used to revise their opinions, and they revoice them, and then voice them. Group work tends to improve their performance". Hanane frequently organizes her classes to work in groups. For her, group work encourages learners to boost their achievement by imitating advanced speaking members. She sees group work as a competitive way that learners rely on to improve, which is in fact not the appropriate aim behind working cooperatively. The sense of competition, I think, would not permit learners to work as a team and seek for the benefit of the whole group.

As far as peer-assessment is concerned, our interviewees informed us that they did not apply it with their classes. Hanane adds that if she comes to apply it, it will be with excellent elements only because she does not believe that this kind of evaluation may help low-level learners to improve and develop their skills of speaking.

Summary of teacher's interviews

This section has presented findings from teachers' interviews. These findings showed the beliefs teachers in this study held about learner autonomy and the practices they do to foster

it. The main focus of these interviews is to see the practicality of aspects tackled in our research to promote learner autonomy. In other words, teachers were asked about their beliefs and practices regarding oral authentic group tasks, learning strategies, and peer-assessment. The following table summarizes the main findings of teacher’s interviews.

Aspects of learner autonomy	Hanane	Abdenour
Nature of learner autonomy	An attribute A developmental process	An attribute
Autonomous student	Motivated to learn Gives additions inside the class	More-knowledgeable More open to learn Take advantage of technological resources
Classroom practice	Listening and speaking tasks Oral presentations Group work	Discussion Role play Games Group work
Learning strategies	Key for autonomy	Student belonging Enabling mechanisms to be better
Classroom evaluation	Traditional teacher-assessment	Traditional teacher-assessment
Constraints	Student’s dependency on the teacher Student’s lack of interest and motivation Classroom management	Student’s dependency on the teacher Student’s lack of interest and motivation

Table VI.29: Summary of teachers’ interviews

Conclusion

It becomes apparent now that we opted for three different research tools to answer questions raised in this work. The first tool was Quasi-experimental equivalent randomized pre-test-post-test control group research design which I selected to examine the contribution that formal strategies-based instruction might offer learners in university-level foreign language classrooms, with a particular focus on speaking. The second tool was two questionnaires administered to second year students of English at BBA University and teachers of English at the same University respectively. The third tool was a qualitative one and based on semi-structured interviews for both teachers and learners of English.

Discussion of the major results and the integration of these findings is the major concern of the coming chapter.

Chapter Seven

Introduction

The previous chapter has presented the analysis of the data gathered by each research instrument: quasi-experimentation, questionnaires, and interviews. Moving from presenting the data separately, this chapter will integrate the findings when addressing each of my five research questions in turn with details and examples. Then, an overview of the important findings from this study will be presented and discussed.

VII.1. Discussion of research questions

VII.1.1. Discussion of research question one

Question: What are the main roles of both teachers and learners to boost learning autonomy?

We relied on two research tools to answer this question, one quantitative (teacher's and learner's questionnaire) and the other one is a qualitative (teacher's and learner's interviews). As far as learners' roles are concerned, teachers of the English department believed that learners hold the major responsibility of their learning, they are responsible to measure their progress during learning and know their strengths and weaknesses, select materials suitable to their needs and interest, choose outside class resources to develop their English proficiency, are more knowledgeable, demonstrate motivation to acquire the language, and show high tendency to take advantage of what technology has brought over now. Learners, in their questionnaire, advocate that they are aware why they are learning the English language, ready to be involved in all aspects of learning from planning, implementing to evaluating, act in cooperation with their classmates and thus are socially responsible people, are able to learn on their own and benefit from their free time, show confidence in their abilities to learn the language, demonstrate curiosity and openness to look for extra resources that may help them to improve their English level, seek for in class opportunities to engage in learning and

participate actively, adopt different learning strategies to make progress in their studies, and have a high disposition to share responsibility with teachers in designing teaching plans.

Teacher's interview and some items in teacher's questionnaire, however, show a negative view of teachers about their learners' autonomy. Teachers' perceptions about their learners are somehow different from their actual behavior in the classroom. In practice, those learners do sometimes take initiatives to propose things different than what is already determined by the lecturer. Only a minority of second year students seem to be autonomous and willing to improve their levels. The remaining elements of their classes are careless to learn, less motivated, are still depending on the teacher to deliver the information, and have a sole aim which is that of having good grades or scores.

VII.1.2. Discussion of research question two

Question: To what extent are teachable learning strategies beneficial for EFL learners' autonomy?

Answers for the second question are taken from quasi-experimentation and interview. As explained earlier in the methodological chapter, quasi-experimental tool was selected to control and manipulate the teachable speaking strategies' variable and examine the effect that its experimental manipulation has on learners' oral performance (the dependent variable or the outcome of the study).

As described in the previous chapter, the actual aggregated strategy use was one third of the strategies mentioned in the questionnaire. We found that there was a low overall strategy use before and after the experimental phase.

One explanation for low strategy use is that participants were exposed to only one task which led them to use few techniques to solve it. We discussed in chapter two that story

completion is a motivational activity that pushes learners to develop their logical thinking and creativity, promotes a feeling of well being and relaxation, increases learners' willingness to communicate thoughts and feelings, encourages active participation, increases verbal proficiency, promotes cooperative work and social development among learners, and improve their listening and concentrating skills via visual clues. Another reason that may explain this lack is that learners relied heavily on their written works and few sub-groups (mainly from group 03) preferred to act orally. In other words, students who acted verbally used more strategies than those that did not make any attempt to test their memories and respect the way the task should be done. Finally, another contributing factor to low overall strategy use is lack of another tool to measure mainly unobservable strategies. The researcher in this study could accompany the pre-test and post-test with a retrospective think aloud technique where participants would be asked to spontaneously report everything that went through their minds while performing the task or a stimulated recall method where the subjects could be invited to recall , when prompted by a video sequence, their concurrent thinking during the task.

The analysis of the pre-test and post-test questionnaire for both control and experimental groups did not show bigger differences in learners' use of speaking strategies before the speaking strategy instruction or even after it.

For social affective strategies, the only difference that we have noticed is at the level of strategies number 25 (I don't mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes) and number 26 (I try to enjoy the conversation). Here the experimental groups seem to show higher tendency than control group to risk making mistakes and to enjoy their oral performances. The analysis of fluency-oriented strategies shows that slight changes are seen for the experimental groups after the experimentation. The first point is about strategy number 9 (I take my time to express what I want to say) where learners turn to be less attentive. The other remark considers technique number 12(I pay attention to my rhythm and

intonation) where our participants' awareness about the importance of such speaking skills raised and they showed a high tendency to do that. The use of strategy number 13 (I pay attention to the conversation flow) reduced after strategy instruction. Now, when we compare in-between groups we find that the control group adapted their speech according to the context more than the experimental groups; whereas the experimental groups paid more attention to the rhythm and intonation of communication than the control group.

Negotiation for meaning while speaking highlights the same differences for the use of strategy number 19 (I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech) and strategy number 22 (I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say) by both groups. They minimized their reliance on these techniques greatly after the instruction (for strategy 19: from 3.56% to 3.31% for the control group and from 3.95% to 3.76% for the experimental one; for strategy 22: from 3.50% to 2.61% for the control group and from 4% to 3.01% for the experimental one).

Our groups made efforts to speak in English by referring to the prior knowledge they had and rely on their native language to build an English sentence (Attempt to think in English strategies). Accuracy-based strategies, on the other hand, indicate one variation between groups in their use of strategy number 30 (I try to talk like a native speaker). Here, the experimental groups made more efforts to imitate native speakers and speak correctly and fluently like them. For message abandonment strategies, we have noticed that the experimental groups used such techniques more than the control group, mainly after the experimentation.

The second point that we focused on when we analyzed learners' use of speaking strategies is the ranking of each type of strategy by both groups before and after the speaking instruction. The aim was to acknowledge the most widely used techniques by our groups and

determine whether the instruction, that our experimental groups received, was helpful or not. The major shift for the experimental groups is the classification of social affective strategies from the fifth rank to the first one. The interpretation that we may give here is the fact that those learners, along their speaking strategy instruction, practiced collaborative authentic tasks. In other words, students' cooperation with their classmates may enable them to overcome some of their fears while speaking and may help them to recognize the benefits of working in groups. The point that seems contradictory with the previous one is the dropping in the rank of negotiation for meaning while speaking strategies (from the second rank to the fourth one). If we consider that those learners might realize the importance of working in groups, why then there is this kind of falling for the use of this type of strategies, which encourage the interaction between interlocutors while speaking? I mean, both types of techniques (social affective strategy and negotiation for meaning one) involve team work and call for a kind of collaboration between the speaker and the listener.

The conclusion that we can put here is that students of our experimental groups did not widely benefit from the instruction they received along the second semester of their second year. The point that we have observed, when we attended the lecture delivery of his explicit teaching strategy, is that learners got easily bored from formal instruction and lecturing and the thing that they seemed really appreciated is the practical part. When the teacher gave them the oral tasks designed after studying each type of strategies separately as lectures, they enjoyed their practices and were really working cooperatively to perform well. Adding to that the fact that participants were not even taking notes when the teachers explained the different instructions related to the use of the six types of speaking strategies.

VII.1.3. Discussion of research question three

Question: What are the suitable tasks in an autonomous classroom?

Oral authentic tasks are activities that reflect the natural use of language and focus on achieving communication. Real world tasks ask learners to perform in class behaviors that they do outside the classroom. An effective speaking task needs to be goal-oriented with an authentic input data that can be comprehended and manipulated by learners and should also reflect their needs and interests, performed in an authentic process, adopt different setting according to its context, the learner should contribute as much as he gained, and teachers should play the roles of facilitators and independent participants within the teaching/ learning group.

The answer to this question is found in the interviews' analysis of both teachers and learners. Both interviewed teachers share the idea that involving a learner in decisions about which oral tasks to perform is a good method that can enhance the learning process. Both teachers claimed that they were open to suggestions by learners if they feel a task is boring or not interesting. They tried to vary the range of speaking tasks for their learners from oral presentation to those that integrate listening and speaking. Teacher of second year, however, was focusing before the experimentation on vocabulary and grammar practices and the idea of authentic tasks was new. He replied that his students appreciated the new experience of dealing with oral tasks that resemble real world life and at the same time give them opportunities to express their ideas freely.

Learners too were highly aware about the necessity of looking for authentic resources to improve their speaking skills. All student participants proposed a number of authentic tasks that range from listening to audio books and imitating their speakers, watching English movies, listening to music and repeating after the lyrics, and communicating in English without referring to mother tongue. The fourth question of students' interview asks learners to classify a number of activities regarding their importance in developing oral performances. The classification given by each participant individually may reveal his/her interest, which is

one of the main criteria of oral tasks. Speaking authentic tasks should properly reflect learners' interests and needs in order to stimulate their potential motivation for language use.

VII.1.4. Discussion of research question four

Question: How should learners be organized to do these tasks?

Nunan (1989, p. 48) proposes a model that comprises the six elements of a communicative task including the setting. By the setting he means the various ways in which learners might be grouped physically based on individual, pair, small group, and whole class mode. Our research highlights the benefits of performing oral tasks in groups, claiming that this instructional approach is associated with gains in achievement, higher-level thinking, self-esteem, and established relations between members of the group.

The three tools, mainly the interviews, used in our research have answered the question of cooperative work for oral tasks. In learners' questionnaire part one, participants were asked if they try to catch chances to take part in activities such as pair/group discussion, role play, and other. The majority said that they often do that ($M=3.76\%$) which can be explained as one of their preferences to practice oral tasks collaboratively. Those learners are aware that their group work is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between members of the group and that each element has his/her own responsibility and is motivated to increase the learning of other members too.

The quasi-experimental part also includes a strategy that calls for asking for help when the learner cannot communicate (strategy number 31: I ask for help when I cannot communicate). Here, participants of both control and experimental groups increased their reliance on this strategy in the post-questionnaire (For control group: from 3.11% to 3.39%, and for experimental group: from 3.22% to 3.62%). Researchers (as **Bruffee, 1992, p. 32**) argue that the main difference between traditional classroom practice and collaborative learning is about

the social context in which learners work. Students' work tends to improve when they get help from their peers.

Learners' interview raised the issue of group work and all interviewees, except for two members, were for the use of collaborative oral tasks. They argued that it is an opportunity to exchange their ideas, improve their pronunciation, and benefit from each other's individual experiences. In other words, those learners do have the spirit of the group (positive interdependence) and know that one owns success is the same as collective success. The other two participants, who were against group work, view that this kind of collective practice does not give them a chance to show their capacities and inhibits them to develop their skills too. These two learners may display particular difficulties (anger, rejection, impatience, excessive self-confidence, vanity, and arrogance) because they lack social, emotional, and communication skills to work with others. They may be the refuseniks who reject teamwork or bullies who display hostility and dissatisfaction of teammates' work.

Teachers too were asked if they are used to this type of learners arrangement during speaking tasks. One of the interviewed teachers declared that it was a new experience for him, during the experimental phase, and claimed that his students enjoyed working together. They learnt to share their opinions, revise them, and then voice them. This teacher made sure that all sub-groups included different levels of students, ranging from high level to average level and low level learners, and were arranged in a tight group facing each other to maximize chances of cooperation and interchange necessary to accomplish the task. Moreover, the number of participants within each group was small (three to four members per group) because learners were just beginning to work together and develop their skills.

The second teacher frequently organized her students to work in groups. She argued that cooperative work motivated the shrinking violet and the drifters to imitate advanced speaking

members. For her, group work is a competitive tool for learners, which is in fact the negative exploitation of students' interdependence. The competitive behavior is a kind of oppositional interaction that, instead of thinking of the benefits of the whole team members, learners may seek to increase their own achievements and intercept that of their group mates.

VII.1.5. Discussion of research question five

Question: What are the appropriate methods for assessing oral tasks?

Assessment is an important ingredient in any instructional operation. It has crucial roles in enhancing learners' gains, teaching and learning quality in general. Responses to this question are attained through the students' questionnaire and teachers' and learners' interviews. The aim, as stated earlier, is to know students' and teachers' perceptions of peer assessment for oral tasks and its practice inside the classroom.

Students' answers of the questionnaire and interview reveal that they have positive views about peer assessment of the speaking tasks. The use of this assessment tool could develop cognitive, meta-cognitive, social, and affective competences of learners. It might stimulate learning as it encourages learners to take responsibility of their own learning and develop them to become autonomous learners. Students are then able to recognize the strengths and weaknesses of their own work, thus developing self-assessment abilities. Through peer assessment, learners can understand gaps in their learning and gain a better grasp of the learning process. Moreover, peer assessment increases learner's self-confidence, empathy for others, reduces stress, and by-passes some of the difficulties that they may have and try to hide for the teacher. In other words, it is a more relaxing tool than tutor-assessment. Alternative assessment perceives learning as a collaborative process, where teacher and students are classmates.

The six first items of peer assessment questionnaire, however, are about learners' perceptions of this strategy. The remaining six questions focus on the real practice of this technique inside the classroom. Participants' answers to the last part were not clear enough (the major responses were undecided). The main reason is the fact that those learners have not yet experienced peer evaluation in their classes and did not know what procedures to follow to maximize the benefits of peer evaluation. But when they were requested about their beliefs about their classmates' eligibility, they had declared that they did not trust feedback given by their peers. The interviewed learners too did not feel confident enough in their peers' ability to evaluate their oral work. They claimed that the evaluator may lack knowledge of subject matter and may not acquire the English language competences that enabled them to judge others' performances. One interviewee added another negative affective side behind the use of peer assessment and stated that student evaluator may feel shy and unable to express his ideas. Learners may fear to evaluate their classmates' performances inappropriately because of fear of retaliation, embarrassment, friendship, and even threats of self-image.

As far as teachers' views are concerned, both interviewees acknowledged that they had not experienced peer evaluation in their classes but seemed to appreciate the idea. For them, this alternative type of assessment might help learners to lower their anxiety as it is not the instructor who is giving feedback. Also, peer evaluation might keep learners attentive and more interested in class. The emphasis of involving learners in assessment is to develop their learning competences including transfer of learning, reflection, critical thinking, problem solving, responsibility, listening skills, presentation skills, academic performance, lifelong learning skills, and lead them to be more autonomous and independent members.

But teachers still believed that the adoption of this instrument in the classroom might have a number of drawbacks. It could raise a sense of hatred and refusal among learners and consequently lead to retaliation.

VII.2. Key themes of the research findings

Integrating the above findings, I would like to focus on a number of themes that seem to emerge:

- Social dimension of autonomy.
- Intercultural aspect of learner autonomy.
- Motivation.

VII.2.1. Social dimension of learner autonomy

This study empirically identified that learners can attain their learning goals by interacting with their classmates and cooperating together in the learning process. This finding supports different researchers' claim (**Benson, 2001; little, 1999; Scharle and Szabo, 2000; O'Leary, 2014**) that learning autonomy cannot be isolated from its social context. All the above researchers emphasized the point that learners' control of their learning situations is a matter of collective decision making and not an individual one. After experiencing a number of group work oral tasks along the experimental phase, our students seemed to increase their preference of working collaboratively and sought for their classmates' help to solve learning problems (from 3.22% to 3.62%) for the experimental group using asking other students help when unable to communicate strategy). Both interviewed learners and teachers appealed for students to indulge in group work tasks and argued that it is a good interactive way that may improve learners' affective and cognitive skills. Our participants viewed that the use of collaborative tasks in the language classroom enables learners to exchange ideas, learn new

information, and develop their learning competencies. The affective side is also given a prominent place in learner autonomy as it helps in reducing learners' stress and anxiety, increases their willingness to study, and encourages shy, hesitating, and reticent members to speak and take part in performing a given task. In other words, learner autonomy guides learners to develop the ability of monitoring one's own and other's emotions.

However, when cooperative learning teams fail, it is likely to be for one of two reasons. Either students do not want to work together or do not know how to work together. In other words, they may lack the will to work together or the skill to work together. Instruction in social skills, which are also life skills critical for success in the workplace, for family life, and for positive social relations, depends largely on the characteristics and background of the students and on the type of cooperative learning the teacher selects.

To ensure a maximum benefit from group work, teachers should devote class time for students to learn about and reflect on their use of collaborative skills like praising, showing patience, and others. When students become familiar with group work activities, then teachers can interfere and introduce other social skills. Teachability of social skills is proved to foster higher achievement and build more positive relationship among group members (**Putnam, Rynders, Johnson, and Johnson, 1989, p. 554**). Teachable social skills need to be introduced in EFL classes to maximize the benefits of cooperative tasks. The very skills students practice daily in the cooperative classroom include active listening, appreciating others, asking for help, building on others' ideas, caring, conflict resolution skills, consensus seeking, cooperation, diversity skills, encouraging others, helping, leadership skills, patience, perspective-taking, respect, responsibility, and sharing (**Kagan and Kagan, 2009, p.5.9**).

To help students get used to the demands and expectations of cooperative work teachers are further recommended to give some training on how to play the different roles during the

CL activity. Selection of roles however is dependent largely upon the age of learners, their skill level, and the task to be undertaken. Thus, students can be allocated the roles of recorder, material manager, participation checker, organizer, questioner, checker, noise controller, and praiser (Jolliffe, 2007, p.119). The teacher should lay emphasis on the group progress and encourage the group to form an atmosphere of helping low achievers on their own initiative. Low achievers should be encouraged to play their roles with confidence in each CL activity, while high achievers should be encouraged to provide language guidance and assistance to low achievers, and be convinced of the benefits from doing so.

VII.2.2. Intercultural language teaching/learning and learner autonomy

The analysis of results obtained from our triangulation study has revealed that our participants are somehow interculturally aware of the target language they are learning. Students' creativity in performing the proposed oral tasks, during the experimental phase for both control and experimental groups, reflected their influence by the English language culture. Also, students' questionnaire of learner autonomy asks them about the main reason of studying English at University. A rate of 3.82% shows that learners' choice of the English branch was mainly due to their interests in English culture like films, music, and others. Moreover, the interviewed learners indicated that they made extra efforts outside the classroom to develop their language proficiency and relied on different authentic resources to learn the language correctly and appropriately including listening to English music, reading different types of books, listening to audio-books, watching English movies and documentaries, and communicating with native speakers. Oral module teachers too claimed that they encouraged their learners to develop their intercultural competence outside formal education if their aim was to enhance their English language communicative competence.

The reality of our educational institutions, and mainly universities in our context, has adopted a static view of culture which assumes that culture contains factual knowledge or cultural artifacts to be observed and learned about. Teaching in our universities therefore focuses on topics such as history, literature, and geography of the country. This information-pedagogy transfer reduces EFL learners' opportunities to develop their intercultural competence as it is simply a matter of "information to be transmitted" (**Crawford and McLaren, 2003, p.33**). Cultural acquisition is much more than the acquisition of facts and the reliance on factual approaches to cultural teaching may leave learners enclosed in their own cultures "...looking out at the other culture and observing its differences (often judgementally) – rather like walking through a museum" (**Ingram and O'Neil, 2001, p.14**)

Many researchers (**Kramsch, 1993; Car, 2007; Liddicoat, 2008 ;...**) highlight the dynamic interrelationship between culture and language in communication. Liddicoat, for instance, expresses that:

Every message a human being communicates through language is communicated in a cultural context. Cultures shape the ways language is structured and the ways in which language is used. A language learner who has learnt only the grammar and vocabulary of a language is, therefore, not well equipped to communicate in that language (2008, p.278).

To reach an intercultural position during the process of language learning, teachers should help learners to expose to sorts of the target culture and skills and knowledge they need to achieve intercultural communication competence. Learners need to learn both language and culture from the earliest stages of the learning process; otherwise the absence of earlier knowledge about culture of the target language may push those EFL learners to build a

cultural space which is filled by uninformed and analyzed assumptions based on assumptions and understandings from their first culture. EFL instructors need to engage learners in genuine social interaction, as the aim of focusing on interactional oral/written tasks in the classroom is not just meant to develop fluency but also to give learners a chance to face their culturally constructed worlds and cultural assumptions and to learn more about themselves (Newton and Shearn, 2010b, p. 66). EFL learners need to develop cultural awareness of the new culture and the new language to make connections to their own culture and their own language. Such awareness may increase learners' understanding of their own and other's people's cultures, and a positive interest in how cultures both connect and differ. Diversity of learners in the classroom is another feature that characterizes intercultural communicative language teaching, where teachers are encouraged to appreciate and respect different cultures that learners bring into the classroom as well as cultivate learners' motivation as diversity is reflected in a range of motivational dispositions. Teachers also need to encourage learners to continue developing this competence once formal education is complete, so that they can act competently in future intercultural situations. The reason for this is that the development of intercultural competence is considered to be a "lifelong journey" (Deardorff 2008, p.39) and it is neither limited to a classroom setting nor solely supervised by a teacher (Jensen, Jæger and Lorentsen 1995, p.14). Consequently, it is argued that language learners need to develop "the competence to learn cultures autonomously" (Sercu 2002, p.72). In other words, they need to develop autonomy in intercultural language learning.

The fact that EFL learners are asked to widen their picture of culture by connecting new knowledge of the target culture with their previous experiences and knowledge does not mean that language learners have to develop native speaker-like abilities. Students are required to understand the native speaker communicative intentions and not behave in a native-like manner (Lange and Paige, 2003, p. xii) because native speaker level

communicative competence is an unrealistic goal for language learners, unless they are ready to ignore their social and cultural identities and adopt a new sociocultural identity.

On the other hand, intercultural language learning involves a set of fundamental principles which can be used as guidelines for curriculum design and classroom interaction and for enhancing the effectiveness of language learning. EFL learners, after being exposed to interactional tasks, need to develop their own ways of dealing with linguistic as well as cultural differences they confront. This process may stimulate their interest, improve recognition, increase critical thinking about language and culture, and develop skills of formulating questions, observing, discovering, discussing and experimenting.

Learning is based on building bridges between home and target language and culture based on learners' existing knowledge of language and culture against new input. It helps them to develop new insights through which they make connections, recognize and extend their existing knowledge. To do this, learners need to develop ways to re-think their initial conceptions and transform their knowledge and identity as well as develop a growing understanding of the interdependence of language and culture.

Learners require being involved in social interaction, which is central to communication, in which they work towards reciprocal relationships, directly explore different cultures, conceptual systems, sets of values, linguistic and cultural boundaries, and see their own and others 'cultures in a comparative light.

Reflection is another key feature of intercultural language learning where learners are encouraged to reflect critically and constructively on linguistic and cultural differences and similarities between their own culture and language and the target culture and language. They need to be acquainted with the appropriate skills of managing their own and its effects on

others, as well as develop a metalanguage for discussing the relationship between language and culture.

High willingness and perseverance are keys to successful communication across languages and cultures. EFL learners are responsible of their performance in the target language, and need to be aware of the importance of interacting with people with diverse languages and different cultures. They should recognize the necessity to indulge in multiple cultural perspectives.

VII.2.3. Motivation and learner autonomy

The third topic that emerged in our research is about motivation. Many items in the quasi-experimentation questionnaire and students' questionnaire embrace a number of practices and affective attitudes that indicate to what extent learners are motivated during the language learning process. The experimental groups, unlike the control group, showed a higher tendency after the experimentation to enjoy the conversation (from 4.09% to 4.32%). For the questionnaire, we will consider the relationship between learners' ability to learn the English language and their perceptions of their responsibilities inside and outside the classroom. Students' responses to items in learner autonomy survey showed a higher relationship between learners' ability to learn the language (4.69% claimed that they always have the ability to learn the language) and their responsibilities inside the classroom (finish task in time 3.84%, catch chances in classroom tasks 3.76% , English choice was to due to individual interests in the English culture3.82% , success and failure in English study was due to English studying 4.21% , students design teaching plan with teachers2.30%, and think and get ready to answer to the teacher questions2.37%) and outside the classroom (good use of free time3.32%, preview before the class2.77% , keep a record of studying3.01%, make self exams 2.52%,

reward 3.16%, attend out class activities 3.02%, and choice of suitable books and exercises 3.53%).

Teachers' responses for the questionnaire and the interview, however, reflected their negative perception of their learners' autonomy. For them, autonomy could be achieved by a minority of students who showed an eagerness and high motivation to acquire the English language. This motivation was illustrated in learners' reliance on their own efforts to use additional and technological devices outside the classroom, their request for teacher's clarifications whenever information is vague, and their willingness to look for newness in their educational process. Those learners in fact had got an intrinsic as well as extrinsic motivation. They enjoyed and showed interest to take part in certain activities because they felt that they were attractive and pleasant (intrinsic motivation), and at the same time they were persuaded by external rewards associated with language learning like high grades (extrinsic motivation). In other words, those intrinsically and extrinsically motivated learners would retain the content for a longer period, and this retention is self-sustained.

Low proficiency learners, as teachers described them, were less ambitious to learn the foreign language and their sole aims were to attain good grades (extrinsic motivation). Those students who are solely extrinsically motivated to perform and do affairs as they think that their contribution will cause enviable results like a reward, teacher admiration, or evasion (prevention) of punishment (**Pintrich & Schunk, 1996, in Mahadi and Jafari, 2012, p.232**).

The language teacher thus should discover, realize, and pay attention to the personality of their students. Moreover, they should be aware of motivation, its high importance, and its types. They should also realize and get familiar with the character as well as the personality of each student. Afterwards, according to that specific personality type, they should identify and recognize the form of motivation relating to that and perform it in their teaching process.

In this case, they can have practical, useful, and effective langue classroom in addition to a positive outcome in their teaching context.

VII.3. The limitations of the study

Although I tried to carefully design this study, during the research process I did discover a number of research procedures that could have been dealt with better. The first instance is about the pre/post test of the experimental phase, where it would probably be better if we used more than one task for learners to perform to elicit more strategy differences with strategy questionnaire, rather than manipulating dimensions of the same task type. Two main elements seem to inhibit the process of dealing with multiple tasks: time constraints and large classes. In our research case, duration of each oral session (one hour and a half) would not be enough to cover various tasks for each group. The number of students per group (36 students for each group) did not help to listen to all subgroups performances of the story completion task, and thus made it difficult for the research to compare learners' strategy perception (the pre/post strategy questionnaire) with their actual use of strategies (pre/post task performance test). Another point would be the possibility of integrating proficiency level of students (high and low levels) to see if it would affect EFL learners' perceived and actual use of strategies. In other words, an oral test or students' grades in oral expression module, first semester, might help to divide students of the three groups into high and low proficiency learners and look if there would be any differences between both proficiency levels in their perceived strategy use (measured by the oral communication questionnaire) on story completion task.

Another limitation was that a number of strategies for coping with speaking difficulties were not observable (thinking first in the mother language then constructing the English sentence, thinking first of a known sentence in English then change it to fit the new situation, use of familiar words, noticing oneself using expressions that fit an already known rule,

giving good impression to the listener, taking risks, enjoying the conversation, relaxing, and encouraging oneself to express the intended meaning). This fact made it difficult to confirm the students' actual use of such strategies. To gather more substantial information about this kind of strategies, the researcher might ask follow-up questions and stop the recorded videos at crucial moments during the pre/post test sessions.

As far as the second tool used in our research, it would be more feasible if we conducted a pilot study for both teachers' and learners' questionnaires prior to conducting the survey with the whole sample. The main aim behind a pilot study is to ensure that aspects of acceptability, validity, and reliability of this tool are tested. Testing a questionnaire, however, can be very time consuming. Time constraints led us to select an already designed questionnaire, mainly learner autonomy questionnaire, to maximize the effects of validity and reliability. As stated in the methodology chapter, the questionnaire was designed by Zhang and Li (2004). One reason for choosing this questionnaire is that it was revised on the basis of the learning strategies that were classified by **Oxford (1990)**, **O'Malley and Chamot (1990)** and **Wenden (1998)**. Besides, many studies used this tool and revealed that it is of high reliability and validity (**Dafei, 2007; Nematipour, 2012; Rahman, 2012; Shangarffam& Ghazi, 2013**). According to **Zhang and Li (2004)**, using **Cronbach's Alpha**, the reliability of this questionnaire was estimated to be 0.80. Furthermore, **Zhang and Li (2004)** reported that this questionnaire enjoyed high validity.

The same thing would be appropriate for the interviews, i.e. piloting both teachers' and learners' interviews, as a way of strengthening the interviews' protocols. Piloting for interviews might help identify if there would be flaws, or limitations within the interview design that might allow necessary modifications to the major study. But we thought that the need for our qualitative interviews to be piloted was not relatively obvious because as the interviews progressed, the quality of the interview guide might improved too.

Moreover, one of the goals of this research is to identify the influence of peer assessment on learner autonomy. It would probably be better if we let our students experience the process of assessing their peers instead of looking for their perceptions toward peer evaluation in a survey. It would be possible to design an oral task and select the appropriate criteria for peer evaluation to test the validity and reliability of learners' answers given in peer assessment questionnaire.

In addition, another obvious limitation concerns generalizations of findings from the three tools to a broader group. As our participants were only EFL university learners and teachers, findings can only be generalized to this context. Furthermore, although the samples of 100 students' participants for the experimental phase and 75 participants for the quantitative survey were large, qualitative semi-structured interviews collected data relatively from a small number of students (six interviewees) and teachers (two teachers of oral expression module of different levels).

VII.4. Implications

Despite the limitations, the findings of the research carry pedagogical implications to EFL teacher educators and learners. Students' responses to the questionnaire, though negatively evaluated by their teachers, can be interpreted as an awareness of those learners of the focal roles they have to play if their objective is to enhance their language proficiency. From this angle, we may conclude that teachers are one of the reasons that hinder learners' autonomy. The findings of the study, mainly teachers' interview, indicated that teachers lacked a clear understanding of what learner autonomy is. The results of this current study showed that teachers needed professional training about learner autonomy before conducting strategy instruction for learners. In other words, they need to attend workshops or seminars on learner autonomy to widen their understanding of the concept, what prerequisites do learners need to

develop their autonomy, how classroom instruction should be delivered, what type of tasks are appropriate to foster their learning, and how should learners' performance be evaluated.

The promotion of autonomy, then, whether we think of learners, teacher trainees or teacher trainers seems to be justified not only because of its educational value but also due to the contribution each individual is enabled to give to the society of which he/she is a member of full right.

There continues to be a debate as to the role and value of educator preparation programs throughout the world. Teacher training in the Algerian university context is solely designed for new recruited teachers who are required to complete an educator preparation program (EPP) prior to assuming full-time teaching responsibilities Ministry of higher education and scientific research sought to develop pedagogical-training program for the new teachers under the decree No. 932 of July 28, 2016 (**See appendix M**), which sets the terms of pedagogical support for these teacher- researchers, where its main objective is to enable them to develop their knowledge and competences of teaching at University. Teacher trainer of this program is responsible for organizing training sessions that discuss the following topics:

- teaching the principles of University legislation,
- Introduction to didactics and pedagogy,
- Psychology and psychosociology of pedagogical relations,
- How to design course development and pedagogic communication,
- Methods of evaluating students,
- E-learning,
- The use of information and communication technologies for teachers.

The overall competences that teacher-trainee might acquire during their training period are the following:

- The use of traditional and new didactic tools (ICT),
- Ensure a cognitive climate in the process of teaching,
- Awareness of the importance of pedagogical dialogue,
- Acquire a dynamic of how to develop students' competences (autodidactic motivation),
- The use of group animation techniques (TD, TP, training),
- Acquire the collaborative work in pedagogic committees and training teams,
- Initiation of tutoring practice and support of students,
- Mastery of oral and written expressions by teacher-researcher,
- Develop innovation in terms of learning to know and learning to do,
- Identify the potentials of pedagogic actions,
- Collaborative and individual evaluation of the progress in acquiring learn- to know, learn- to do, and learn- to be competences,
- The use of the evaluation grid to attain the objectives of the training.

The above attributes do not relate directly to teachers' reflectivity and critical thinking which derive from the need to challenge existing beliefs, schemata and preexisting knowledge. Thus, they are not attributing of an autonomous practitioner. The overall aim of this University teacher development programme is to provide new teachers with theoretical

insights about basic knowledge and notions they need while teaching, and forget to consider how they can be implemented in real terms. In other words, student-teachers are provided with theoretical information about what was meant by pedagogy for teaching/learning at University level and the relevance of learner training in this context, without considering the main role of teaching instruction at universities. What is missing in this in-service teacher trainee programme is pedagogy for autonomy where teachers should be trained to become autonomous learners who are aware of their own strengths and weaknesses and enable them to monitor their own learning process through learning skills and strategies. Integrating autonomy-related elements into in-service teacher education programs to promote learner autonomy among teacher candidates might be practically achievable. The content of this autonomy courses might include certain topics such as creative/reflective learning, multiple intelligences, learning styles and strategies, time management, motivation/anxiety, and critical thinking and this content have to be covered through certain methods such as lecturing, and student oriented tasks, reflective writings and presentations.

As far as EFL teaching and learning is concerned, literature suggests that EFL/ESL teachers' in-service training and/or classroom experiences influence and inform their teaching and practices (**Yook and Lee ,2016; Faez & Valeo, 2012; Kubanyiova, 2006; Nazari & Allahyar, 2012**) . Policy makers should review the content of the programme and consider the lasting impacts of teacher training on instructional choices of teachers and how this may impact students. In other words, they should ensure that the association between teaching practices and training remained after teachers have been in the profession for an extended period of time. Policy makers, teacher educators, and university administrators should realize that in-service training is not sufficient. What is needed, to maximize teacher/learner proficiency and performance, is professional development throughout the teaching career to

promote teacher adoption of beneficial instructional methods that lead to autonomous learning.

Teacher training programs have to respond to the need to create new learning environments that would, as **Broadbent (2003, p. 111)** puts it, “assist individuals to become proactive in reshaping their personal, professional, and recreational lives (...) to promote active open-mindedness and the capacity to be creative (...) to value the concept of lifelong learning (...) and to construct alternative visions of teaching and learning”. Algerian policy makers may develop educational guidelines specific for language teachers and language learners and get inspired by international programmes that strongly stress the need to enhance teacher and learner autonomy by promoting, among other things, the practice of reflectivity and self-assessment in both language teaching and learning. They may integrate certain documents such as:

- The European language portfolio (ELP), which aims to promote learner-centered approaches to teaching in which self-assessment is vital, is a practical tool for learner self-assessment,
- The European profile for language teacher education (EPLTE) is a proposal for language teacher education in the 21st century, which makes suggestions concerning the structure of educational courses, the knowledge and understanding central to foreign language teaching, the diversity of teaching and learning strategies and skills and the kinds of values language teaching should encourage and promote (**Grenfell, 2005**),
- The European portfolio for student teachers of languages (EPOSTL) is a document intended for students undergoing their initial teacher education which encourages them to reflect on the didactic knowledge and skills

necessary to teach languages, helps them to assess their own didactic competences and enables them to monitor their progress and to record their experiences of teaching during the course of their teacher education (**Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak, and Bielak, 2017, p.163**).

Afterward, taking into consideration that EFL teachers in Algerian Universities have the whole responsibility to design their own syllabuses by approximating the content of each module to the proposed content found in LMD canvas of each level separately, teachers may adjust the classroom instruction to suit learners' need and maximize the benefits of incorporating learners in the learning process. The first shift after teacher training programs is the readiness to switch roles for both instructors and learners. Teachers should show a willingness to consider learners as partners in achieving common goals. They have to practice that change in their classes from dominators to facilitators, counselors, and resource providers.

A general implication of the findings obtained in this study is that it added to the growing body of research in speaking strategy instruction that maintains that speaking is a teachable skill. Therefore, speaking should find a place in the students' curricula and most importantly in initial and in-service teacher education programs. The significant gains made by students in the strategy instruction groups provided more evidence that strategy training is effective in developing the speaking performance. Language teachers then are asked to teach explicitly how, when, and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning and language use tasks and have to indulge such strategies in everyday class materials and embed them into the language task. The application of strategy training may bring a number of benefits for EFL learners and help them to be better learners in several ways. Strategy instruction may guide students to identify and improve strategies that are currently used, identify strategies that the student might not be using but that might be helpful for the task at hand, help students to

transfer strategies across tasks and even across subject field, aid them in evaluating the success of using particular strategies with specific tasks, and assist subjects in gaining learning style flexibility by teaching them strategies that are instinctively used by students with other learning styles.

Teachers, however, have to be cautious in instituting learner training in the classroom and pay attention to a number of factors that may affect on the process of developing independent learning. These factors include learners' cultural background, age, educational background, life experience, affective factors, and learners' and teachers' beliefs about language learning. Thus, teachers have to widen their knowledge about language learning strategies if their aim is to train learners well and have to be open-minded and accept their new roles as facilitators and language learning experts, while learners act as the experts themselves. Teacher education programs need to include and highlight strategy instruction as an important component to build up teachers' knowledge, interests, beliefs, and confidence in implanting strategy instruction. Also, they have to test and select the appropriate model of language learning strategies to ensure a higher acceptability and efficiency on the part of learners.

As stated earlier in this research, speaking skills are central to the contemporary FL classroom, where the aim is to develop learners' fluency, accuracy, as well as their sociocultural communicative competence. Findings of the quasi-experimental tool, together with our observation when attending oral classroom sessions along the experimental phase, demonstrated that both teacher and learners perceives the various practices in a positive light. The speaking tasks, which the researcher suggested for each speaking strategy session, ranges from outburst games, stress check practice, ball pass practice, what is my line practice, and dinner together for compensation strategies session. The speaking strategy instruction that was suggested to our students' participants is mainly based on task-based language methodology, where oral practice is the central component to foster learners' awareness

about the suitable speaking strategies for each task, thus promoting their learning autonomy. Teacher of second year oral module, in the interview, reported that these tasks were purposeful and meaningful, encourage learners to make decisions about their learning process, teach them life-long learning skills, are interesting and motivating, assume more productivity, dynamicity, and creativity, and encourage learners to take an active role in their learning process.

The reader may notice that all the proposed oral tasks, in our research, take the form of games. One of the reasons that make games important in the classroom is that they are fun and thus motivate learners who are used to be passive and inactive before. Second, games can help learners to develop the skills of communicating in real life situations. Also, they make teachers step out of the frontline and leave the floor for students to do more on their own, take on more responsibility, and increase their confidence level ([Langran & Purcell.1994. pp.12-14](#)). Moreover, games may solve the problem of the lack found to communicate in the target language outside the classroom and provide a connection between the real world and the classroom ([Hadfield.1990.p.v](#)). This type of oral tasks leads the students to be emotionally involved, which means that they need to feel something when they are exposed to the language. Strong emotions, such as happiness, excitement, amusement and suspense allow students to feel positively about their learning situation and are therefore likely to have a positive effect on language learning “We won’t want to treat them like children, but some of them might, nevertheless, respond well to a lighter style of learning which does, indeed, involve quizzes, puzzles and the study of contemporary songs” ([Harmer, 1998, pp. 11-12](#)).

Games devoted to develop the speaking skills are either linguistic or communicative games. The first type stresses the necessity to speak correctly, while communicative games focus on the fluency skill. The role of teachers in the language classroom is to select games activities that best fit the learning situation, match fun and challenge together, modify them if

necessary to suit the level of students, and most importantly explain the rules of the game and instructions in details.

Another point that we noticed, when using this type of tasks, is that the collaborative nature of the above tasks increased learners' interest and motivation and willingness to interact. Group work games can help EFL learners build relationships and create a positive and friendly atmosphere where seat arrangement can differ from game to game, and thus cause diversity from the norm which can be extremely helpful in keeping an exciting learning environment.

To help students get used to the demands and expectations of cooperative work teachers are recommended to give some training on how to play the different roles during the CL activity. Selection of roles however is dependent largely upon the age of learners, their skill level, and the task to be undertaken. Thus, students can be allocated the roles of recorder, material manager, participation checker, organizer, questioner, checker, noise controller, and praiser (Jolliffe, 2007, p.119). The teacher should lay emphasis on the group progress and encourage the group to form an atmosphere of helping low achievers on their own initiative. Low achievers should be encouraged to play their roles with confidence in each CL activity, while high achievers should be encouraged to provide language guidance and assistance to low achievers, and be convinced of the benefits from doing so.

The current research worked on alternative assessment too and the findings from both the students' questionnaire and interviews reflected that the traditional-teacher assessment is the dominant method in teaching the oral skill and students are not given chances to participate in the evaluation process. It is recommended that teachers need training to be aware of the importance of such kinds of assessments and the need to involve the students more in the process and support in introducing these new teaching techniques into their classrooms. They

need to know that peer interaction is cardinal to the improvement of students' learning because it permits students to construct knowledge through social sharing and interaction, gives them a sense of ownership of the assessment process and improve their motivation, encourages learners to take responsibility of their own learning and develops them as autonomous learners, develops self-assessment abilities, and more importantly encourages them to critically analyze work done by others, rather than simply seeing a grade.

General Conclusion

General conclusion

It is arguable that learner autonomy is a buzz word in today's EFL language teaching and learning. The purpose of the current study was to test the effectiveness of using speaking strategy instruction, oral authentic group work tasks, and peer assessment in guiding EFL University Algerian learners to foster their learning autonomy. I have made the best attempt to answer all five research questions by employing both quantitative and qualitative data. Three forms of instrumentations were used: quasi-experimentation with a pre/post questionnaire, learners' and teachers' questionnaires, and teachers' and learners' interviews. From the perceptual point of view, all variables, teachable speaking strategies, oral authentic group tasks, and peer assessment, seem to work positively in enhancing the autonomy of learners. Overall, this study found evidence that teachers lacked understanding of learner autonomy and so did not utilize the concept in their teaching practices. The research identified key underlying reasons for the current situation of learner autonomy in Algeria in that teachers do not incorporate learner autonomy in their teaching because they perceive a range of barriers to such an inclusion. These barriers include lack of understanding of the concept, lack of time, and little belief that their students are capable of becoming autonomous in their learning. The current research has highlighted the need for policy considerations that clearly outline the importance of learner autonomy in Algerian higher education. These policies need to be implemented formally so that teachers can appreciate the benefits to be gained in fostering learner autonomy. In order to help teachers, the government needs to also provide teacher training through workshops and seminars on how to foster learner autonomy. In conclusion, the current research provides an in-depth understanding of factors that may foster learner autonomy. The current research provides that step by contributing theoretically, methodologically and pedagogically to better understand learner autonomy.

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Appendices

APPENDIX A : Cooperative learning structures: Jolliffe, 2007, pp.116-117

Class-building	Team-building	Thinking skills	Communication skills	Information sharing	Mastery
<p>Human treasure hunt List of up to 10 questions given to each pupil. They have to find someone to answer each question who then elaborates and signs their name.</p>	<p>Two truths and a lie Teams take it in turns to tell two truths and a lie. Teams have to guess the lie.</p>	<p>Think-pair-share Teacher asks a question and then provides 'think' time, pupils talk to a partner and then share their answers.</p>	<p>Timed talking Pairs are given roles of A and B. Partner A talks for 60 seconds, partner B talks for 45 seconds and then partner A continues/summarises.</p>	<p>Round robin The teacher asks an open-ended question. Each member of the team takes turns to share their answer, orally or in writing. Class discussion of answers.</p>	<p>Doughnut Pupils stand in two concentric circles, facing each other. They share information on a topic learned. At a given signal the outside team moves a number of paces clockwise and shares what they have heard.</p>
<p>Line-ups Class lines up according to given criteria with the most knowledgeable at one end and the least at the other. The line is split into two, to make two lines. Mixed ability groups of four can be then made.</p>	<p>Three-step interview (e.g. sell your house) Teams work in pairs to describe something such as their house. Their partner then has to sell it to the team.</p>	<p>Think-pair-square Pupils are first given think time, they then share with a partner. Lastly they share thoughts with the rest of their team.</p>	<p>Paraphrase game After listening to a partner or member of the team, pupils should summarise or paraphrase what they have said. Team members listen for accurate paraphrasing.</p>	<p>Team interview This is like a round robin, except each pupil has an allotted amount of time and other members ask the student questions.</p>	<p>Rally table Pupils work in pairs to take turns to share ideas back and forth. These are often written down and passed to and fro. Pairs then share their lists and form a composite team list.</p>
<p>Mix-freeze-pair Pupils circulate and when the teacher says given 'freeze', they stop. When s/he calls 'pair', they form pairs and interview each other on suggested themes, e.g. pets, holidays, pop groups.</p>	<p>Round robin Teams respond in turn to a question from the teacher, either orally or in writing. It is legitimate to pass.</p>	<p>Think-write-pair-compare Here pupils jot down their thoughts before sharing with a partner, which helps organise thoughts and ensures individual accountability.</p>	<p>Twos to Fours Pairs work together and then share their ideas with another pair.</p>	<p>Two stay and two stray After working on a topic, two members of the team move to an adjoining team to share ideas. Pairs then move back to their original teams to compare.</p>	<p>Numbered heads together Each member of the team is a number and then asked to answer a question. Numbers are then called at random and every member of the team must be able to respond.</p>

Class-building	Team-building	Thinking skills	Communication skills	Information sharing	Mastery
<p>Name games Pupils sit in a circle and say their name in turn. The aim is to see how quickly they can get round the circle saying first their names and then the person on their right/left, etc.</p>	<p>Group identity – team logo/banner/name/poster Creating a product that reflects all the members of the team.</p>	<p>Graphic organisers See communication skills, but also useful for organising thoughts.</p>	<p>Talking tokens Each person in each team is given a 'token' (such as their pen). If they want to talk they have to place their token in the centre of the table. They cannot talk again until everyone has put their token in the centre.</p>	<p>Roam the room At a signal, pupils move about the room (often in a clockwise direction) to look at and discuss what other teams have done. Particularly useful after use of graphic organisers.</p>	<p>Flashcard game Where a subject requires the memorisation of facts (such as multiplication tables), pupils work in pairs with flashcards, showing question on one side, and the answer on the other. Pairs take turns to hold up questions and test each other on correct answers.</p>
<p>Just like me Pupils in a circle and the teacher says something they have done, or like. Everyone who did the same, says 'Just like me' and stands up.</p>	<p>Team hamburger or pet Each member describes their favourite food or pet. Using art materials the team constructs one that reflects the interests of all.</p>	<p>The grid Using a four-by-three grid for each pupil with rows labelled such as 'what I learned', 'something I did not understand', 'something I found interesting'. They fill in for themselves and find other pupils to write their thoughts.</p>	<p>Graphic organisers These are ways of organising information which are produced and discussed by the team. Examples include the T chart, Venn diagrams, fishbone, ideas trees.</p>	<p>Whiteboard share Following from team work, such as three-step interview, one representative from each team posts their best answer on the board or flip chart.</p>	<p>Pairs check/check and coach After working on a topic, teams (or the teacher) prepare a list of questions to check understanding. Pairs take it in turns to answer the questions with the other partner prompting and coaching.</p>
<p>Sharing similarities Pupils are asked by the teacher to find someone who shares the same birthday, has read the same book, likes the same actor, etc.</p>	<p>One and all A framework (e.g. Venn diagram) for discovering similarities and differences of team members.</p>	<p>Diamond ranking Teams are given a series of nine statement cards and then decide how to rank them in a diamond with the most important at the top.</p>	<p>Class value lines An issue is stated. Students decide to stand at a point on the line representing what they think. They pair up with the person next to them and state their position.</p>	<p>Roaming reporter While pupils are working on projects, one representative from each team may for a certain amount of time, be a 'roaming reporter' gathering information from other teams.</p>	<p>Roundtable This is like round robin. Pupils write answers to a question and pass the paper round the table for everyone to contribute.</p>

APPENDIX B: Taxonomies of Communication Strategies

Various Taxonomies of Communication Strategies

Tarone (1977)	Færch & Kasper (1983b)	Bialystok (1983)	Paribakht (1985)	Willems (1987)
AVOIDANCE Topic avoidance Message abandonment	FORMAL REDUCTION Phonological Morphological Syntactic Lexical	L1-BASED STRATEGIES Language switch Foreignizing Transliteration	LINGUISTIC APPROACH <i>Semantic contiguity</i> -Superordinate -Comparison * Positive comparison Analogy Synonymy * Negative comparison Contrast & opposit. Antonymy <i>Circumlocution</i> -Physical description * Size * Shape * Color * Material - Constituent features * Features * Elaborated features -Locational property -Historical property - Other features -Functional description <i>Metalinguistic clues</i>	REDUCTION STRATEGIES Formal reduction -Phonological -Morphological -Syntactic -Lexical Functional reduction -Message abandonment -Meaning replacement -Topic avoidance
PARAPHRASE Approximation Word coinage Circumlocution	FUNCTIONAL REDUCTION Actional red. Modal red. Reduction of propositional content -Topic avoidance -Message abandonment -Meaning replacement	L2-BASED STRATEGIES Semantic contiguity Description Word coinage	* Size * Shape * Color * Material - Constituent features * Features * Elaborated features -Locational property -Historical property - Other features -Functional description <i>Metalinguistic clues</i>	ACHIEVEMENT STRATEGIES Paralinguistic strategies Interlingual strategies -Borrowing/code switching -Literal translation -Foreignizing Intralingual strategies -Approximation -Word coinage - Paraphrase * Description * Circumlocution * Exemplification - Smurfing - Self-repair -Appeals for assistance * Explicit * Implicit * Checking questions -Initiating repair
CONSCIOUS TRANSFER Literal translation Language switch	-Topic avoidance -Message abandonment -Meaning replacement	NON-LINGUISTIC STRATEGIES	CONCEPTUAL APPROACH Demonstration Exemplification Metonymy	
APPEAL FOR ASSISTANCE				
MIME	ACHIEVEMENT STRATEGIES <i>Compensatory strategies</i> -Code switching -Interlingual transfer -Inter-/intralingual transfer - IL based strategies * Generalization * Paraphrase * Word coinage * Restructuring -Cooperative strategies -Non-linguistic strategies <i>Retrieval strategies</i>		MIME Replacing verbal output Accompanying verbal output	

Table 2 (continued)

Various Taxonomies of Communication Strategies

Bialystok (1990)	Nijmegen Group	Poullisse (1993)	Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b)
ANALYSIS-BASED STRATEGIES	CONCEPTUAL STRATEGIES Analytic Holistic	SUBSTITUTION STRATEGIES	DIRECT STRATEGIES <i>Resource deficit-related strategies</i> * Message abandonment * Message reduction * Message replacement * Circumlocution * Approximation * Use of all-purpose words * Word-coinage * Restructuring * Literal translation * Foreignizing * Code switching * Use of similar sounding words * Mumbling * Omission * Retrieval * Mime <i>Own-performance problem-related strategies</i> * Self-rephrasing * Self-repair <i>Other-performance problem-related strategies</i> * Other-repair
CONTROL-BASED STRATEGIES	LINGUISTIC/CODE STRATEGIES Morphological creativity Transfer	SUBSTITUTION PLUS STRATEGIES	
		RECONCEPTUALIZATION STRATEGIES	INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES <i>Resource deficit-related strategies</i> * Appeals for help <i>Own-performance problem-related strategies</i> * Comprehension check * Own-accuracy check <i>Other-performance problem-related strategies</i> * Asking for repetition * Asking for clarification * Asking for confirmation * Guessing * Expressing nonunderstanding * Interpretive summary * Responses
			INDIRECT STRATEGIES <i>Processing time pressure-related strategies</i> * Use of fillers * Repetitions <i>Own-performance problem-related strategies</i> * Verbal strategy markers <i>Other-performance problem-related strategies</i> * Feigning understanding

APPENDIX C: Benefits of involving learners in assessment. Falchikov (2005, pp.114-16)

Type of benefit	Examples
<i>Cognitive and meta-cognitive competencies</i>	
Aids problem solving	Dochy <i>et al.</i> (1999) (review); Oliver and Omari (1999)
Brings about unspecified educational/ learning benefits	Armstrong and Boud (1983); Boud and Holmes (1981); Boud and Knights (1994); Brehm (1974); Davies (2000b, 2003a); Denehy and Fuller (1974); Freeman (1995); Gray (1987); Lennon (1995); McDowell (1995); Oldfield and MacAlpine (1995); Orsmond <i>et al.</i> (1996); Powell <i>et al.</i> (1987); Sitthiworachart and Joy (2003); Stefani (1992, 1998); Williams (1995)
Encourages development of higher order cognitive skills	Zoller and Ben-Chaim (1997)
Encourages reflection	Alverno College (2001); Anderson and Freiberg (1995); Askham (1997); Boud and Knights (1994); Brew (1999) (review); Challis (1999); Chang (2001); Davies (2003a); Falchikov (1996a,b); Holt <i>et al.</i> (1998); Horgan (1997); Jordan (1999); Kwan and Leung (1996); Lapham and Webster (1999); MacDonald (2000); McDowell (1995); Mansell (1986); Safoutin <i>et al.</i> (2000); Sluijsmans <i>et al.</i> (1999) (review); Stefani (1998); Woodward (1998)
Encourages transfer of learning	Catterall (1995)
Improves critical thinking	Ewers and Searby (1997); Falchikov (1986); Oliver and Omari (1999); Sivan (2000)
Improves understanding/ mastery	Catterall (1995); Falchikov (1986); Lapham and Webster (1999); Ney (1991)
<i>Skills development</i>	
Brings about unspecified benefits to professional skills	Topping (1998) (review)

Type of benefit	Examples
Enhances listening skills	Falchikov (1995a,b)
Enhances vocational skills	McDowell (1995); Trevitt and Pettigrove (1995)
Improves presentation skills	Price and Cutler (1995)
Improves writing skills	Topping (1998) (review)
Promotes learning skills/abilities	Dochy <i>et al.</i> (1999) (review)
Promotes lifelong learning skills	Challis (1999)
<i>Performance</i>	
Enhances experience of trainee teaching	Anderson and Frieberg (1995)
Improves academic performance	Dochy <i>et al.</i> (1999) (review); Davies (2000b); Hassmén <i>et al.</i> (1996); Tsai <i>et al.</i> (2002)
Improves grades/ test scores	Bangert (1995); Dochy <i>et al.</i> (1999); Gibbs (1999); Greer (2001); Hunt (1982); Shortt (2002)
<i>Personal/ intellectual development</i>	
Brings about unspecified benefits	Fry (1990); McDowell (1995)
Increases autonomy/ independence	Beaman (1998); Falchikov (1986); Lapham and Webster (1999); McNamara and Deane (1995); Sivan (2000); Stefani (1998)
Increases responsibility	Dochy <i>et al.</i> (1999) (review); Edwards and Sutton (1991); Heathfield, M. (1999); Lapham and Webster (1999)
Increases self-efficacy (in context of mathematics)	Bangert (1995)
<i>Social competencies</i>	
Enhances diplomatic skills	Falchikov (1994, 1995a,b)
Improves co-operation	Lapham and Webster (1999); MacDonald (2000)
<i>'Affective dispositions' (Birenbaum, 1996: 4)</i>	
Decreases test anxiety (particularly mathematics anxiety)	Bangert (1995)
Increases confidence	Lapham and Webster (1999); Falchikov (1986); Foubister <i>et al.</i> (1997); Price and Cutler (1995); Sivan (2000)
Improves internal (intrinsic) motivation	McDowell (1995); Oliver and Omari (1999)

Type of benefit	Examples
Reduces stress	Zakrzewski and Bull (1998)
<i>Benefits to assessment</i>	
Brings unspecified benefits	Davies (2002)
Enhanced appreciation of importance of criteria	Trevitt and Pettigrove (1995)
Saves time	Ngu <i>et al.</i> (1995)
<i>Benefits to teachers</i>	
Unspecified (associated with need to prepare model answers)	Gray (1987)

APPENDIX D: A typology of peer assessment in higher-education. (Topping, 1998, p.252)

Variable	Range of Variation
1 Curriculum area/subject	All
2 Objectives	Of staff and/or students? Time saving or cognitive/affective gains?
3 Focus	Quantitative/summative or qualitative/formative or both?
4 Product/output	Tests/marks/grades or writing or oral presentations or other skilled behaviours?
5 Relation to staff assessment	Substitutional or supplementary?
6 Official weight	Contributing to assessee final official grade or not?
7 Directionality	One-way, reciprocal, mutual?
8 Privacy	Anonymous/confidential/public?
9 Contact	Distance or face to face?
10 Year	Same or cross year of study?
11 Ability	Same or cross ability?
12 Constellation Assessors	Individuals or pairs or groups?
13 Constellation Assessed	Individuals or pairs or groups?
14 Place	In/out of class?
15 Time	Class time/free time/informally?
16 Requirement	Compulsory or voluntary for assessors/ees?
17 Reward	Course credit or other incentives or reinforcement for participation?

APPENDIX E: Oral Communication Strategy Inventory Questionnaire

Questions	Never or almost never true for me	Generally not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Generally true of me	Always or almost always true of me
1. I think first of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence.					
2. I think first of sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation.					
3. I use words which are familiar to me.					
4. I reduce the message and use simple expressions.					
5. I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent.					
6. I pay attention to grammar and word order during conversation.					
7. I try to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence.					
8. I change my way of saying things according to the context.					
9. I take my time to express what I want to say.					
10. I pay attention to my pronunciation.					
11. I try to speak clearly and loudly to make myself heard.					
12. I pay attention to my rhythm and intonation.					
13. I pay attention to the conversation flow.					
14. I try to make eye-contact when I am talking.					
15. I use gestures and facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself.					
16. I abandon the execution of a verbal plan and just say some words when I don't know what to say.					
17. I correct myself when I notice that I have made a					

mistake.					
18. I notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned.					
19. While speaking, I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech.					
20. I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying.					
21. I repeat what I want to say until the listener understands.					
22. I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say.					
23. I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say.					
24. I try to give a good impression to the listener.					
25. I don't mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes.					
26. I try to enjoy the conversation					
27. I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.					
28. I try to relax when I feel anxious.					
29. I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say.					
30. I try to talk like a native speaker.					
31. I ask other people to help when I can't communicate well.					
32. I give up when I can't make myself understood.					

APPENDIX F: Story completion task

STORY COMPLETION TASK

Please read the following brief story. After reading the story, take a moment to imagine what the person in the story might do, say, think or feel next, if the story were to continue.

"Going to the Doctor"

John woke up one morning feeling a bit under the weather. He had a sore throat, a throbbing headache, and a stiff neck. Feeling that this might be more than just a cold, John decided to make an appointment with his doctor. Fortunately, the receptionist said they could fit him in at 10:00 that morning. John bundled up and drove over to the clinic. After checking in with the nurse at the desk, he sat down in one of the waiting room chairs and began to read a magazine.

What happens next?

APPENDIX G: Examples of the students' videos transcripts (pre/post- test)

Group 2 :

Anis

John Wake up feeling Under the weather , so he decided to make an appointment with his doctor , he called the receptionist if there is any volubility today , she answer with “yes “ .then he went there and while waiting in the line some patient started making terrible noises he started getting headache and his pain got worse and his face was white as sheet he was +++ to black out he had t figure something , he asked the receptionist if he can skip some patient at first the receptionist denied his request but he gain he convincing her that she couldn't reject . He felt dying so she allowed him to get a turn. Then the doctor checked him and sent him to the ray-scan room,so, he did. But the result was the worst news he even received it was that he have a brain tumor and got only two months to live. he felt sad , afraid and broken after two weeks he decided to have fun as possible as he can , he started with visiting the high places which used to feel fear of , he gave money to the homeless . He turned to be a good philanthropist; he became absolutely a good person.

After the two months are over He went back to that doctor but while he checked him again he figured out that he isn't sick and it was a mistake at the ray-scan room he got angry with the doctor but while he went back to his house and thought of all that he figured out that it was a blessing and just a miracle from god to make him a good philanthropist.

Sonia.

Amina.

OumKelthoum.

Yasmine.

Zaki.

Imene.

Chaima.

When John was reading a newspaper suddenly an old man with a white beard enter to the waiting room, he saw john anxious and angry. So he tried to help her.

The old man said:“what's wrong with you john”?

John was surprised:“than he answered: how did you know my name”?

The old man:“smiled peacefully H.H.H.H.H and said:“I know everything and I have the cure for your disease”.

John: “really!! Who are you? What do you want for me?”

The old man: “comedown john, I’m here to help you take this panacea and drink just 3 drops only”.

John get exited and drank the entire bottle, he felt well and became stronger.

The old man: “screamed and said hey! I told you to drink only 3 drops .you fouls the rule”.

John laughed “hahaha!!!” no I’m stronger than you did you old man die!

That bottle contained supernatural power but evil one.

John crosses the limits so it’s affected on him badly.

John went out to the world ... an evil man is free now.

Aicha.

Matifa.

Soumia.

Dahbia.

Fatma.

John woke up one morning feeling unwell his throat was dry, and had a terrible headache so he decided to go to his doctor.

John: «OH my god my head is going to blow out my through me so bad, I should go to see my doctor”.

Hello Madame I’m not fine this is why you are seeing me here.

Thank you that is kind of you .

What if I died what is going to happen to my beautiful wife and my two kids.

- Hello doctor.
- Hello
- How are you?
- I’m not fine at all, I’m feeling bad a, am having a terrible headache this morning.
- Dear wife! I want to tell you that I went to the doctor and my analyses were positive , I’m having cancer in my through cause I smoked a lot in my life but I don’t care I will have chance.
- Oh I will never let you alone I’m here until death separates us you will start your chemo if god will , you will retrieve your health as it was before after checking the general situation of john’s health he asked to some analysis.

The wife was really shocked and afraid.

After months of having the chemo and really tuff treatment he actually snooped back and moved on with his wife and lived in in happily ever after.

Rihab.

Ilhem.

While John was reading the magazine and waiting for his turn, the assistant came to ask him to inform him about his waitlist, whereas, he still waiting and for few patients, the assistant comes and call the first one to pass, after that, one hour left, She called the second patient, after that the assistant go out, and asking the third one. then John started to be nervous and confused about this, what happening so he still ask himself many questions:" why they didn't get out, where are they and what are they do there, whereas he was thinking the assistant came to tell him his tum, the assistant went, John still set in his chair and he feel afraid, the assistant told him in fair voice, "it's your tum», when he was near to the door; he heard some. Trifling noise, and screaming and he saw. the doctor from the****, that this need doctor and some blood in the floor, be fieldscary about this , he try to call the police, but the doctor sawhim from the camera, John tried to ran away and draft him from his Racks taking in side.

Imen.

John began to read the magazine everything was natural until he heardmysterious voices. He was astonished, and then he put the magazine away. John started to check the room trying to figure out the source of these bad noises. Suddenly, a women affording her child entered, that moment she goes to the doctor's room, the baby started crying. Then the same thing happened with two or more patients. John terrified more and more a million of questions comes to his head: «What is going on?! Everything in the clinic was moving except the nurse. She was quite calm. John was so scarred, then he heard someone calling him"... Sir, Sir" It's your turn mon. John discovered that it was just a dream, he was taking cut nap.

Amina.

When John was reading, the letters turned into a storm that he entered in. He found himself in the disease's land. It was completely destroyed and fell in darkness .it consisted of many caves. John entered the first cave, he saw a horrible man. "Who are you?" asked John frightened. "I'm the father of all diseases you have and I win bring you down more than this" replied the horrible man. He run away and he entered the second cave he found another man. "What are you doing in my cave?" cried the man. "I'm searching fora cure to my disease". Replied John I'm the cancer and I will send you to the land of death. John

tried to get a grip on himself but he was too terrified to stay in control (suddenly). He called out for help but no chance he was alone. Suddenly he found himself in a high cave with an old wise man. Please help me to find the cure for my disease “The Cure is in you, just search for it”. Then, the nurse wake him up, it was just a dream.

Anis.

So he got bored and annoyed buy some patients he couldn't handle terrific pain , he started annoying receptionist end being a pain in the neck to her so the doctor made an exception case to let him in before his time, the doctor then asked him “what is the matter with ! you did ever!”.Thedoctor was a bit nervous because this assumption might be a cause of brain tumor. The doctor called his assistant to guide John to the Ray scan Room, so could do something basic scan his heart was bombing up until he could hear it , because he was so stressed out . It's finally the time to revel the results the doctor diagnosed him with * headache so the doctor set a group therapy appointments to him and he assured he will be feeling good after taking some days off and he was just because of the ** and the pressure he had not work.

Khaoula.

While he was reading a friend of his came, and sat beside him, they had quite a long conversation before he asked him about what brought him here. John started telling him about the symptoms he had this morning doubting that it's more than just cold. His friend seemed a bit confused after hearing about those symptoms, saying he know someone with the same indications. John hesitated to ask what the diagnosis was .but he asked straight ,***, he wished he didn't because he got traumatized when his friend mentioned tuberculosis...Now it's his turn , he interred to the doctor , but now everything was black for him , because his doctor claimed that he really had that disease, he walked through the door of the clinic depressed, and send that his life's came to an end , as he's wandering , a car hit him , to wake up freakishly to find out that he was just dreaming .the doctor told him that he was stressed and lost control , because he only has cold and fatigue, john had the longest sigh in his life , thanking the lord that he was hallucinating.

Group 1:

Djamila.

Imen.

Maroua.

Beghoura

When John was reading the magazine the nurse came to him and show him the doctor's room.

John: good morning doctor.

The doctor: Good morning sir, have a sit. How can I help you?

John: "I felt unwell this morning. I think I'm going to be sick"

The doctor: you will make some analysis then we will see what the problem is, please wait in the reception room I will give you the result after 13:30.

After 13:30 the doctor came to John and said that he had a bad news to him and that his medical analysis is not good. He had a cancer in his brain and he has less than one week to live.

John was speechless because of the shock; he went home without any word he felt lost. John recognize that he have one week to live and his life will end soon , called his mother and tell her how much he loves her, he decided to spend his last days with his family . John and his family were separated from each other since years so he calls his family and they back together after two days the doctor called John and he apologize to him because his analysis was wrong .

John felt chocked; he had another chance to live. He recognizes that life is great gift and this experiment was a lesson for him because he back to his family.

John was in the a reception room reading a magazine suddenly he heard child crying he stand up quickly and followed where the voice came from when he open the door he found a child in the corner , when he get closer to him the child disappeared . John frizzed and when he turn , he found the child stand behind the door , heron to catch him but the boy run out and go to the street , John was screaming look out , there is car behind you , the boy didn't even cares . suddenly the car crush him , John run to check him he saw that the child came to John , then John told him how that happened ? "The spirit doesn't die" John gets choked. Ho could I see you then? The spirit: "you are just like me, you are dead sir".

John didn't understand this situation he was very confused about what had happened.

He came back to the doctor Klink, found a crowd of people gathered on dead body he get more closer to them to figure out what happened the boy didn't even cares, suddenly.

Ahlem.

Samira.

Ahmed Salah.

wahid.

The psychopath

The story starts with psychopath who happens to be a successful man in his days. But unfortunately had jalousie peoplearound him, they were actually the main cause of his mental disease. John wakes up in this morning as usual and notice on interesting thing in his arm, it is Clark and ugly scar. Random images come to his head these were images from the accident that led him to this situation. It all started with his friends. John, saw Oliver and miss stone, they were sitting in the hotel playing cards and having a good time .as they more playing James got a phone call and message , it was suspicious. Miss Stone saw him and asked him everything is okay. And he told her that it was a business problem so he is thinking of doing a crime and revenge to his dignity, so he goes and cut off john's cars brakes. As john deriving he notice that something is wrong with the car and it won't stop, so to survive, he jumps from the car to the bridge. As john was struggling to survive, the lost sound he heard the sound of the ambulance and people shouting. Today was the first day in which he gets back to senses and starts planning a new crime to take revenge from his friend.

Hassiba.

Linda.

In the early morning, Daniel called games as usual to go to the gym but he refused directly. Daniel wondered about his situation and asked him about the matter games: I'm not good all. I woke up this morning exhausted; I see weird persons talk to me and I hear a loud noise. I feel my body's shaking. Daniel: «but serious man! I know you are well. Stop joking and come», Daniel began to worry about him the he went to his friend's home.

When he arrived, he found the door open and James in terrible state; talking to himself, the house stuffs broken and tears on his cheeks. Daniel: what's happened? I'll drop you to hospital when they arrived to the doctor, he told them that his physical health is good but he advises them to go to psychologist. Daniel tools his friend to psychologist.

Psy: according to his answer, your friend's mental state is good. But to my experience you friend has black magic. John was waiting for his turn, the assistant called his name and he found the doctor waiting, did a regular check up on him and found nothing but a flew . however during the examination a group of men in black interrupted them willing to take john because days ago he was broke and had nothing to survive ,while he was walking he found an announcement about a lab wants to test their new medicament in exchange for

cash so he was injected with that medicament and he went back to home with the men were from CST taking those people who were injected because that remedy was about a very dangerous virus that may exude all the human kind in order to take to them the national laboratory to cure them John got very scared she ran out of the clinic while running a truck crushed him accidentally .

Linda.

Balkis.

Nihad.

Zina.

One morning day Catherine wakes up at 8 p.m. feeling under the weather, she was very tired with a high fever and a terrible headache and puffin throat. She knew that she was very sick and she has the urge to see a doctor .she called the nurse to take rendez-vous.
Catherine: good morning Miss.

Nurse: good morning. Catherine: I want to have an appointment with the doctor please.

Nurse: for sure I'm going to check the list for you , we have the time from 9 to 12.

Catherine: I want to register my name at 10.

Nurse: okay what's your name please?

Catherine: Catherine Smith.

Nurse: all right it's done.

Catherine: thank you Miss.

So Catherine went to the clinic at time she knocked the door and enter it.

Catherine: hi doctor.

Doctor: hello Miss! Sit down please! What's the problem with you?

Katherine: actually! I woke up with a fever and I don't feel that I'm okay at all my throat is in a bad situation.

Doctor: let me check your throat and take your temperature, I think you need to have a test to know what the problem is.

After while Katherine lefts. The next morning the nurse called and informed her about bad results.

Nurse: hello is that Miss Catherine?

Catherine: yeah it's Katherine.

Nurse: I'm calling to inform you about the results of the test, I'm sorry for saying that but you have pharyngitis, you must come to see the doctor again.

Catherine: wow! I understand, thank you Miss.

Katherine was afraid because the results and she was depressed .she went back to the doctor ,but in her way the nurse called her again and apologize because there was a mistake and there were a misunderstood in her name.

Catherine was very happy.

Catherine: oh my God! Thanks a lot, I'm relieved now!

Taher.

Younes.

John was feeling a bit under the weather. Japanese he decided to visit a doctor when he enters the clinic receptionist told him to wait for couple of hours. While he was waiting a police officer was also waiting to see the doctor and he was also out of duty he saw john when he was in front of him. The police officer got chocked because john was looking like a wanted criminal. The officer kept an eye on him. After seeing the doctor john went directly at home. The officer followed him at night john heard a knock on the door when he take a look he found that it was the police man ... he grabbed the keys and run with his car from the back door. The police followed him and took him and after a hot pursuit they arrested him, and took him to the situation in order to do the DNA test for him. John was the interrogation chamber waiting the police officer enter and tell john that his DNA doesn't match with the criminal and that he was just similar to him and suddenly before the officer start talking john confesses to the officer that he killed his wife the night before.

souad.

ChemssEddin.

Fares.

One day john was waiting for his turn in the waiting room in the clinic, while he was reading a magazine he found and interesting article about cancer, he found these symptoms are related to his illness he became afraid wishing that his illness is just a flu . The following day john became sicker he met his friends in the coffee and he told him about his disease. His friends gave him hope and encourage him to visit the doctor as soon as possible. After few days john decided to visit the doctor again because he was not feeling goodhe checked and appointment in morning after that the doctor asked him to do a

medical analysis but unfortunately it was negative, john had cancer. After few months he died.

Ilyes.

Soufiane.

Imed.

Suddenly, the place started shaking after an earthquake struck near the clinic, people started screaming and panic set in. They were children, old man and woman. But, john controlled himself and guided them to the exit advising them to avoid surface and electric columns, until they get out. During his running he heard a woman voice stuck with her baby inside, he decided t get back for her, he found the door closed, he tried hard to open it, but the tremor back and destroyed the place and dropped the wall on him. Then he started screaming asking for help. Until his brother came and wakes him up, it was just a dream.

Group 3:

Nassim.

Azzedin.

Said.

John sat down in one of the waiting room and began to read the magazine while he was reading it , he found an advertisement f a person that has the same symptoms as him, furthermore he became interested into it, because that person became in a better condition after using natural herbs from an old man. john checked the address of this man from the article and decided to council his appointment with the doctor. And then went to the man who can show him where this old man is , in order to by the herbs , but unfortunately the old man had none anymore he decided to go together to the mountain where they can find the natural herbs.

Nesrine.

Houssem.

Abderaouf.

When John was sitting in the waiting room, he waits till his turn. The nurse called his name, he entered to the doctor he presented himself and told the doctor about his situation he was having an ailment that prevented him from going to his job. At that moment the doctor was very tired because he had checked up many patients, after finishing the visit of John he gave him a medication recipe. When John went home he took his medication and he felt that he was very ill more than before the temperature was rising. He came back to the doctor then he discovered that the doctor had given him a wrong recipe. So the situation became more complicated, John had to stay in the clinic for a few days, John accepted the apology of the doctor and forgave him.

Meborki

Bendib

khababa

Amiri

John started reading the newspaper, suddenly he wondered because he saw an announcement of a team who had been killed in a car accident.

Now it's John's turn to enter, he described his conditions to the doctor, turned out he had nothing to worry about but a simple fatigue.

During the conversation the doctor asked him if something unusual had happened last night.

But John's reply was unexpected after that the last thing he could remember is when he went out with his friends.

As he got back home, he started having hallucinations of a teen wearing a bloody shirt screaming "You are killer".

He went to sleep thinking that he's just tired, hallucinations didn't stop and the more they last, the more they get worse. The teen looked familiar to him, he checked the newspaper from that day to find out that the dead teen was the same one, he went to the accident place and started having separated visions about being drunk the night the teen was killed.

Mohamed Elmajed

Haythem.

Hanan.

Rawdha.

Zahra.

While John was reading a magazine, the nurse called his name ; the doctor was waiting for him , the doctor checked him carefully he released that he has a dangerous and rare illness and he wouldn't live long, though he couldn't tell exactly how long it would be , it was hard for the doctor to tell him the truth but he had to , after a moment he told hi John was surprised but he accepted this fact , he decided to spend the rest of his days with his family and friends enjoying , he gathered his beloved ones and told him about his condition , they were surprised but they supported and encouraged him when they left his heart was broken thinking that the rest of his days go useless to live he decided to put an early end to his life , he brought a gun and put it in his head , he pulled the trigger, he woke up , the nurse was putting his shoulders to wake him up , it was just a dream.

John was exhausted after that miserable night , so he walked to the neighborhood doctor , when he got there , atmosphere was so calm and there were a woman in the waiting room , he sat facing her and asked her when is her turn , she told him that she noticed something odd that everyone enters doesn't come out , they both were patiently waiting , and it's finally the woman's turn and he knew that the mysterious thing happened to the woman again , John waited for his turn John walks to the bit white door , and pushed it open off room one choked his neck violently grabbed a scissor and stabbed her in the neck she was the receptionist he kept walking toward that huge black container to find all the missing body organs , so the disturbed doctor facing John and finally John stabbed him and call the police.

APPENDIX H: Experimentation lectures

1st Lecture

Topic : Memory strategies

Duration : 1h30mn

Aim : teaching EFL learners memory strategies to store and retrieve new information in the target language

Skill: the speaking skill

1. Instructions for the teacher trainee

-Steps of teaching the speaking strategies:

- (1) Immerse learners into an authentic language task without instructional cues;
- (2) Ask them to explain the strategies they used to complete that task.
- (3) Introduce the new strategies. You fully inform the learners by indicating why the strategy is useful, how it can be transferred to other tasks.
- (4) After an explicit instruction of the strategies, ask your learners again to evaluate the success of the new strategies by asking them about the range of strategies, they learnt right now, they think work better for their oral proficiency.

2. The practice (40mns for the experimental groups)

OUTBURST GAME

Divide the class into groups. You assign each team a particular topic which is to be kept secret from the other teams. Each team meets for 5 minutes in private and collectively draws up a list of ten items related to the topic. After the lists are made, the game begins. You tell Group A the name of Group B's topic. Team A then has one minute to try to guess the items on Team B's list (hence producing a noisy outburst). The members of Team B must listen and tick the items which Team A manages to guess. For every word Team A guesses correctly, they score a point. For every word they miss, Team B gets a point. After the points are recorded, it's Team B turn to guess Team A's list. You keep working in this way with all sub-groups. The first team to score X number of points wins.

Topics are: Freedom, women driving, oil, social media (the selection of these topics is based on previously discussed ones. The aim is to test your learners memories and their abilities to retrieve already learnt vocabulary items).

NOTES.

1. You can give an example of your own. Let's say the topic is "personality" and possible list of items under this topic is: nasty, easygoing, sociable, ambitious, lazy, funny, childish, bad tempered, bright, champ.
2. For the experimental group 2, you ask the learners to practice individually.
3. The control group 1: you ask them to practice the task individually. For this group mainly, you just introduce the task and do not teach them the strategies of this and the coming lectures.
4. The experimental group 3, you ask them to practice in groups.
5. after the task is done, you are asked to teach this type of strategies to GROUP 2 and GROUP 3. With the control GROUP 1, you will just use the same tasks without any explicit or even implicit teaching of strategies.

3. The lecture: MEMORY STRATEGIES

Memory strategies are used to store and retrieve new information.

1. Placing new words into a context: It can be seen as a speaking strategy which means placing new words or expressions that have been heard or read into a meaningful context, such a spoken sentence, as a way of remembering them.

2. Representing sounds in memory: It is a speaking strategy where learners try to remember what they hear by making auditory rather than visual representations of sounds. In other words, learners can link the new word with a familiar one from any language, the new language, or one's own language.

e.g. learners may use rhymes to remember new vocabulary items. The learner may create a nonsense rhyme to memorize', let's say the word "parrot". He/she may say: I hit a parrot with my carrot. The parrot said I am dead.

3. Reviewing well: well memory strategy is based on a structured spiral way of remembering new material in the target language. The language learner ,for instance,

keeps reviewing the new material in the target language at different intervals until it becomes automatic.(it's reviewed repeatedly to retain it in long-term memory and retrieve it easily and automatically when needed).

NOTE: After the practice, you ask your learners what have they done to learn the new words of the topics you discussed together before.

- After you explain your lecture, you need to ask them again about what strategies, among memory strategies, they used before to store new vocabulary words in English.

Second lecture

Topic: Social and Affective Speaking Strategies

This type of learning strategies is called indirect strategies because they involve an indirect use of the target language.

1.Affective strategies. The term affective refers to emotions, attitudes, motivation, and values. Language learners can gain control over these factors through affective strategies.

A- Lowering your anxiety. It is about effective anxiety reducers techniques

- **Use of progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or mediation:** Using the technique of alternately tensing and relaxing all of the major muscle groups in the body, as well as the muscles in the neck and face, in order to relax; or the technique of breathing deeply from the diaphragm; or the technique of mediating by focusing on a mental image or sound.

-**Using music:** before any stressful speaking task try to listen to soothing music, such as a classical concert, as a way to relax.

-**Using laughter:** Using laughter to relax by watching a funny movie, reading a humorous book, listening to jokes, and so on.

B-Encouraging yourself. Self encouragement strategies help to keep the spirits up and persevere along the process of learning.

-Making positive statements: Saying positive statement to oneself in order to feel more confident in learning the new language.

-Taking risks wisely: Pushing oneself to take risk in a language learning situation , even though there is a risk of making mistakes or looking foolish.

-Rewarding yourself: Giving oneself a valuable reward for particularly a good performance in the new language.

C-Taking your emotional temperature. This type of strategies enables learners to notice their emotions, avert negative ones, and make the most of positive ones.

-Listening to your body: You need to listen to your body and pay attention to positive and negative sensations frequently.

- Using a checklist can help learners assess their feelings and attitudes about language learning in general, as well as specific language tasks.

-Writing a language learning diary or a journal to keep track of learning the new language.

-Discussing your feeling with others. Learners need to discuss their language learning difficulties and process with other people (teacher, friend, relative).

2.Social strategies.

A. Asking for correction: learners may ask for correction of problems that can cause confusion or offense.

B. Cooperating with others: This strategy involves encouraging learners to work together on an activity with a common goal or reward.

C. Empathizing with others: learners should develop a kind of cultural awareness of the foreign language they are acquiring through short cultural discussions into classroom activities and by comparing and contrasting behavior in their native culture and the target one.

Practice: Stress check practice

Purpose : this exercise helps learners to assess their stress level, which directly influences language learning.

Instructions: Here is what you can say to your students, in your own words, of course: You might be feeling under a little or a lot of pressure lately. You might not yet know what is causing the problem. If you are feeling stressed, think about what the cause might be. Do not just mask stress with sleeping, TV, or something else; think about what is causing you to worry. Are you worried about how you are doing in your studies?

The first thing to do is to identify, if you can, what is bothering you most about the problem or situation. Is there anything you can do about it? What steps might you take to solve the problem or address the main issue?

Try to look for someone to talk to about the problem. Get new ideas about how you might deal with it. If the problem is truly serious, seek professional help from your teachers, counselor, or other person.

Can you take your mind off the problem a bit by doing something else that is interesting and positive? Is there anything in your life that feels really good just now? Make a list of good things that exist, and read the list a couple of times each day. In this way you might be able to develop some perspective about the difficulties you face.

Question for learners: name signs of stress that you have noticed in yourself lately?

Third lecture

Topic: Metacognitive strategies

The third type of indirect strategies is metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive means beyond, beside, or with the cognitive. Therefore, metacognitive strategies are actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their learning process.

1.Centering your learning. Help learners to converge their attention and energies on certain language tasks.

- Over viewing and linking with already known material strategy involves teachers letting students express their own linkages between new material and what they already know, rather than being directive in helping them to learn. Vocabulary building is an important part of the over viewing /linking strategy.

-Paying attention: EFL learners may pay direct attention to the task in a global or general way or a selective attention where they focus on particular details. Teachers should encourage direct attention by providing interesting tasks, reducing classroom distractions, asking students to focus, and rewarding them. They can include tasks that require specific attention like filling out in completed charts or checklists.

-The speech delay strategy is an automatic tool that learners make use of. It gives priority to listening comprehension before students feel ready to speak. The reason lies to the fact that listening is more rapidly developed than speaking and because speaking seems more threatening to many learners.

2.Arranging and planning your learning. It is the second category of metacognitive strategies. Teachers are asked to give their learners chances to talk about their language learning problems(the finding out about language learning strategy).

-Organization is an important tool in language learning and it includes creating the right physical environment, scheduling well, and keeping a language learning notebook.

-Learners must set their long range goals and short range objectives for the speaking skill. Before performing a speaking task, learners are advised to identify its purpose.

-The next strategy is planning for a language task where learners are asked to identify the general nature of the task, the specific requirements of the task, the resources available within them, and the need for further aids. Furthermore, language learners should not content themselves to classroom practice. Rather, they must look for additional chances to practice the language.

3.Evaluating your learning. The third subcategory of metacognitive strategies has to do with evaluation. Self monitoring and self evaluating are two evaluation tools. The former entails learners conscious decision to notice and correct their important speech errors, The latter includes self recording, face-to-face interaction and soon.

Practice: Ball Pass Practice

What is it? A method for structuring a large group discussion that encourages active listening and student-to-student interaction.

Good for: Facilitating equal participation.

How to: The facilitator, holding a ball, begins by posing a question or sharing an observation. Students wishing to respond raise their hands, and the facilitator passes the ball to one of them. The person who received the ball must first respond to the first speaker's question or comment before adding his or her own contribution. The second speaker then passes the ball on to the next person wishing to contribute.

Note: this practice is designed for the three groups. The difference is that the instruction of the 3rd lecture is devoted just to groups 2 and three.

-Group 1 does the task without being informed about the metacognitive strategies.

-You're free to choose the question to be discussed in the practice.

Fourth lecture

Topic: Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are essential in learning a new language. They are unified by a common function: manipulation or transformation of new language by the learner. Cognitive strategies are divided into practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structural for input and output.

1.Practicing:

- Repeating strategy (a practicing one) means saying the same thing several times, at a different speed (suggestopedia), imitation of native users of the language (to improve pronunciation, use of structures, vocabulary, idioms, intonation, gestures, and style).

- Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems strategy can be assisted with tapes or records(i.e. the language learner records him/herself then hears to compare his/her voice with a native speaker's voice).

-Recognizing and using formulas and patterns strategy can be applied to all language skills. Formulas are unanalyzed expressions (e.g. the weather's nice, isn't it/ and what happened then?/ That's not so bad/ Hey, that's great? , ...), while patterns have at least one slot that can be filled with an alternative word(I don't know how to.../ I would like to...). Teachers should teach learners such expressions to increase their understanding and enhance fluency.

-The strategy of recombining is about building a meaningful sentence or longer expression by putting together known elements in new ways.

-Practicing naturalistically concerns on using the language for actual communication.

2.Receiving and sending messages. Learners can rely on printed resources (dictionaries, grammar books, travel guides and magazines) or nonprinted resources (tapes, TV, videocassettes, radio, museums, and exhibitions among others) to understand a spoken message or to produce the target language (comprehension and production of speaking).

3.Analysing and reasoning. The third type of cognitive strategies encourages learners to use logical thinking to understand and use the grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language.

-Reasoning deductively falls under this type and has to do with the learners' reliance on prior knowledge of general rules to learn the meaning of what's heard. Sometimes the use of this strategy may result in over generalization errors like the application of the past-ed rule to all verbs.

-Translating strategy, which occurs mainly among beginners, can provide the wrong interpretation of target language material if word for word (verbatim) translation is used.

-Transferring: the last of the analyzing strategies asks learners to directly apply previous knowledge to facilitate new knowledge in the language. Inappropriate transferring can be found if the language elements or concepts are not directly parallel and thus leads to inaccuracy.

Practice: What's My Line practice

Purpose : this exercise allows the development of guessing and naturalistic practice skills in an entertaining format.

Instructions: tell your students the following in your own words. One student will take the role of "a secret person" who has a certain occupation. The other students will ask him/her questions that can be answered by yes/no; their task is to find what the occupation of the student is.

Alternative: as a variation of this game, you can ask students to select a famous person as their “secret person”. This gets into all sorts of interesting historical and cultural information. If the students figure out that the secret person is dead, they can use the past tense; if the secret person is alive, they can use the present tense.

Lecture five

Topic: Compensation strategies

Compensation strategies, the third type of direct strategies are used to make up for an inadequate repertoire of grammar and, especially, of vocabulary .

1. Overcoming limitations in speaking. EFL learners make call of these strategies to stay in conversations long enough to get sustained practice.

- **Code switching or switching to the mother tongue** involves using the mother tongue for an expression without translating it.

- **Getting help strategy:** Learners may ask for help in a conversation by hesitating or explicitly asking for the missing expression

-**Using mimes or gestures:** Body language, like mime or gesture can be helpful to overcome communication breakdowns.

-**Avoiding communication partially or totally strategy:** Though it keeps the learner emotionally protected, goes against the aim of speaking as much as often as possible.

-**Selecting the topic:** Learners may select the topic of conversation for which they are interested and have the needed vocabulary luggage.

-**Adjusting or approximating the message** is another compensation strategy and it concerns omitting some items of information in a conversation and simplifying ideas.

-**Coining words:** During a conversation, learners may use coining words strategy (similar to translating strategy) to communicate a concept for which they do not have the right vocabulary (for instance, saying “night table instead of “bedside).

-**Using a circumlocution or synonym strategy** is used to convey the intended meaning. Circumlocution means a roundabout expression involving several words to describe or explain a single concept (e.g. you may say: I lost my leather package that holds my papers; instead of: I lost my briefcase).

Practice: Dinner together

The activity requires three students: Student A is the American student. Student B is the international student. Student C is a waitress in the restaurant where the students have come to have dinner together. The scene begins with the waitress showing the students to their table and introduces some dishes from the menu. The two will then talk about what to eat and then order. To add to the scene, the waitress could bring the wrong food or forget to bring cutlery to the table.

Restaurant vocabulary

Taking a Reservation

- Finding out what the client wants:
 - For what time?
 - For how many?
 - Who's the reservation for?
- Giving the client information about restaurant hours:
 - I'm sorry, we're not open on (day).
 - We (open, close) at (time).
 - We're open until (time).
- Refusing a reservation:
 - I'm sorry, there aren't any tables left for (time), but we can give you a table at (time).
 - I'm sorry, the restaurant's full.

Receiving the Diner

- Seating the client:
 - Have you got a reservation?
 - Would you like to (could you) come with me, please?
 - Would you like to (could you) follow me, please?
 - Will this table be all right?
 - Would you like to (prefer, rather) sit (near the window)?
 - Where would you like to sit?
 - You can (may) sit where you like.
 - I'm sorry, that (this) table is already reserved.
 - I'll bring you (the menu).

- Your table's ready now.
- Telling the client there isn't a table:
 - You can (sit, have a drink, wait) in the bar if you like and we'll call you when we have a table.
 - I'm sorry, the restaurant is full now. We can (might be able to) seat you in (time).

Taking an Order

- Asking the client if he's ready to order:
 - Are you ready to order?
 - Would you like to order now?
 - Have you (decided, chosen) what you'd like?
- Asking the client what he'd like to have:
 - What would you like? (to have, to drink)?
 - Would you (like, care for) (a, some) ... before (dinner, lunch)?
 - Would you like something to drink?
 - What kind of (food, beverage) would you like?
 - What would you like with that?
- Telling the client what he can have:
 - (Today), we've got ...
 - Today's special is ...
 - (The chef's, our) specialty(ies) (is, are) ...
 - For a continental breakfast which is included in the price of the room, you can have ...
 - We've got a choice of ...
 - (Everything's) à la carte.
 - We've got (there's) a set menu.
 - You can choose from the ...
 - We have a buffet. You can have all (you want, you'd like) for (price).
 - (It's, that's they're) (served) with ...
 - I think we can fix (one, some) up for you ...
 - I'll ask in the kitchen.
- Telling the client what he can't have:
 - I'm sorry, there (aren't, isn't) any ..., we haven't got (a, any) ...

- I'm sorry, (there isn't, we haven't got) (any left, any more) ...
- Asking the client how he'd like something:
 - How would you like (that, it, them)?
 - How would you like (that, it, them) (prepared, done)?
 - Would you like (that, it, them) ...?
 - Would you like (that, it, them) with ...?
 - Would you like (a little, a, some, a lot of) ... with (that, it, them)?
- Recommending something to the client:
 - Perhaps (I could recommend, you'd like, you might like) (a, some, a little) ...
 - I would (recommend, suggest) (a, some) ...
 - Why don't you try (a, some) ...
 - It's (very good, delicious) ...
 - (The) ... (is, are) (very good, delicious).
- Finding out if everything's all right:
 - Is everything (satisfactory, all right)?
 - How's the ...?
 - Would you like anything else?
 - Will that be all?

Paying the Bill

- to pay in cash
- to pay by traveller's cheque
- to pay in foreign currency
- to pay by credit card
- Credit cards are not accepted.
- We can take a cheque with a banker's card.
- Do you want it all on the same bill or do you want to pay separately?
- There is a cover charge.
- Service is included.
- What seems to be the trouble?

APPENDIX I: Learners' questionnaire

Dear students.

First of all, let me thank you for your time and cooperation concerning this questionnaire. Your valuable opinion will help my research a great deal. Do not hesitate to choose the answers that best describe your learning experience, for there are *no* simply 'right' or 'wrong' learning techniques, but rather the way in which you approach the English studies most naturally. All the information collected will be confidential and will be used for research only.

Part1.

Questions	Never	Rarely	Sometime s	Often	Always
1. I think I have the ability to learn English well.					
2. I make good use of my free time in English study.					
3. I preview before the class.					
4. I find I can finish my task in time.					
5. I keep a record of my study, such as keeping a diary, writing preview etc.					
6. I make self-exam with the exam papers chosen by myself.					
7. I reward myself such as going shopping, playing etc. when					

make progress.					
8. I attend out- class activities to practice and learn the language.					
9. During the class, I try to catch chances to take part in activities such as pair/group discussion, role play, etc.					
10 I know my strengths and weaknesses in my English study.					
11 I choose books, exercises which suit me, neither too difficult nor too easy.					

Part 2.

12. I study English here due to:	A. My parents demand	B. Curiosity	C. Getting a good job, help to my major	D. Interest of English culture, such as film, sports, music etc.	E. C and D
13. I think the learner-Teacher relationship's of:	A.Receiver and giver	B. Raw materials and Maker	C. Customer and shopkeeper	D. Partners	E. Explorer and director

14. I think my success or failure in English study is mainly due to:	A.Luck or fate	B. English Studying Environment	C. Studying facilities(aids)	D. English studying	E. Myself
15. Whether students should design the teaching plan together with teachers or not, my opinion is:	A.Strongly agree	B. Agree	C. Neutral	D. Oppose	E. Strongly oppose
16. When the teacher ask questions for us to answer, I would mostly like to:	A.Wait for others' answer	B. Think and ready to Answer	C. Look up books, dictionaries	D.Clarify questions with teachers	E. Join a pair/group discussion
17. When I meet a word I don't know, I mainly:	A .Let it go	B. Ask others	C. Guess the meaning	D.B and E	E. Look up the dictionary

Part 3. Students' Perceptions of Peer Assessment

(Peer assessment is when the teacher gives an activity and then asks you to correct your peers' performance instead of the teacher himself/ herself)

Choose one of the following numbers and write it after each statement:

1. Strongly agree 2. Agree 3. Undecided 4. Disagree 5. Strongly disagree (Please circle the letter)

1. Peer assessment is helpful to students' learning.
2. Peer assessment makes students understand more about teacher's requirement.
3. Peer assessment activities motivate students to learn.
4. Peer assessment activities increase the interaction between the teacher and the students.
5. Peer assessment helps students develop a sense of participation.
6. Peer assessment activities increase the interaction among students.
7. I think students are eligible to assess their classmates' performance.
8. The comments my peers gave me were fair and reasonable.
9. I am comfortable with peers assessing and commenting on my class work.
10. I feel I am a good judge of my peer's English language ability
11. I think that the teacher should be in sole charge of assessing my classwork.
12. I feel that peer feedback on class work is as valid as teacher feedback.

Teacher: DOUADI FATIMA

APPENDIX J: Teachers' questionnaire

Dear teachers,

The following questionnaire seeks to gather your perspectives about learner autonomy and how can it be fostered in teaching English at university. You are kindly requested to answer the following questions by selecting the appropriate choice and making your comments when necessary.

1-It is the teacher's (T), the learners' (L) or both the teacher and learners' (B) responsibility to:

- a) make sure learners make progress during lessons T / L / B
- b) make sure learners make progress outside class T / L / B
- c) stimulate learners' interest in learning English T / L / B
- d) identify weaknesses in English T / L / B
- e) make learners work harder T / L / B
- f) determine the objectives of the English course T / L / B
- g) decide what should be learnt next T / L / B
- h) choose what activities to use in class T / L / B
- i) decide how long to spend on each activity T / L / B
- j) choose what materials to use to learn English T / L / B
- k) evaluate progress made T / L / B
- l) decide what is to be learnt outside of class T / L / B

2-4. Language learning autonomy is (please select one)

- a) an inborn capacity
- b) an ability which can be developed

3-Fostering language learner autonomy is a worthwhile goal. (please select one)

- a) Yes

b) No

4-In my classes / lectures students

a) always

b) sometimes

c) rarely

d) never take initiative (i.e. openly express interest in doing something different than what is determined in the syllabus).

5-(Based on your understanding of autonomy) How would you rank the students you had this year:

a) Highly capable of being autonomous

b) Somewhat capable of being autonomous

c) Not capable of being autonomous at all

6-What are the constraints of fostering learner autonomy in your teaching context?

-learner autonomy is only achieved by some learners

-Examinations are barriers to the development of learner autonomy in Algeria

-The teacher's knowledge about learner autonomy is a constraint to foster learner autonomy in your class.

7- What is the best approach to foster learner autonomy in your educational context?

-Providing students learning materials and resources

-Training students to develop their skills and strategies to become autonomous

-Curriculum reform

-Cooperative learning with other students and teachers

-Training teachers

APPENDIX K: Learners' interviews transcripts

1- Linda

- 1- How do you evaluate your progress in learning English as a foreign language? Let me say, Are you a good Language Learner, Are you a middle, or low English Learner and why?
- B:** OK. So, actually my opinion and according to my experience I think I'm a good Language Learner. I started a program before that, OK, just in order to improve myself, and I found that it is very useful actually. So, I started my learning independently.
- A:** Independently, It works. Means before you come to university.
- B:** No, actually after.
- A:** After you first year maybe.
- B:** Yes, I've this experience because during the 1st year I didn't really want to study English.
- A:** Yeah.
- B:** Yeah, so I was, I take a decision to change right, during the next year.
- A:** Yeah, doing what?
- B:** Actually, I want to do something better. OK.
- A:** And then, why have you changed your mind?
- B:** You know (laughter) I fell in love with the language.
- A:** Yeah.
- B:** It was very interesting actually, so I start this because I noticed that it is very important actually our study alone. OK.
- A:** Yeah.
- B:** you know, I believe that a good teacher can help you, maybe to improve, or maybe guide you to improve (interpreted).
- A:** Guide you! He's the guide here not more.
- B:** Yeah, Yeah, But actually cannot bring the language and put it inside your mind.
- A:** Very good.
- B:** Yeah.
- A:** so you have to work.
- B:** yes, yes.
- A:** OK, good.
- 2- When I say environment, it's inside the classroom here at university and when you go outside.
- B:** Yeah.
- A:** Do you think that this environment helps you to improve?
- B:** Actually, during university it is good to be, to interact with teachers, with some students. Sometimes I oblige them to speak English with me, so it's very useful actually. And outside them room, I think that the same thing because we have here (stop) so, when we speak about technology, we can find everything in English, so YouTube, or something like that. So, there're many videos, many native speakers that we can listen to or learn from them.
- A:** It means it helps, it works inside and outside.
- B:** Yeah.

A: Good.

3- You as a good language Learner, what do you advise the others to do to improve their skills?

B: Listening.

A: Listening!

B: Yeah, listening, and listening and listening, and we have also reading.

A: Reading! Reading what?

B: Actually, this depends on the student himself, when I think about myself, for example (interrupted)

A: His interest?

B: Yeah, that's it. I like novels, for example imagination, something like that.

A: Very good, novels.

B: Yeah.

A: You read novels.

B: Yeah, that's it, and you can also (Ah) for example, watch something really related to our environment.

A: What do you mean related to our environment?

B: Actually you can (Ah) something related to science or something like that.

A: OK.

B: OK, we've reading (then pause) watching TV not movies. Actually I'm not very interested in movies. I watch TV here, like I said, something documentary, something like that, With English subtitles of course, you know listen and at the same time reading. Listening to music no (nodding with her head) talking t native speakers, not actually, but interacting with native speakers.

A: Interacting, what's the difference here between interacting and talking?

B: You know here, it means when you talk like talking with native speakers; interacting with native speakers can be, for example, just writing the message and something like that.

A: Yeah.

B: (Reading choices) Talking with myself, always I feel it every single day.

A: It works?

B: Yeah, in front of a mirror or something.

A: Good, awesome.

4- Do you prefer to work individually in an activity? Do you prefer pair work or group work? And why?

B: all right, maybe group work.

A: Why?

B: we exchange a lot of information actually, I learn a lot from my friends.

5- It means, you've a number of activities and you're asked to select which one to be performed today?

B: Yeah, Yeah. It was like (emh) the teacher asked us about (emh) selecting a person, OK.

A: Do not talk about you teachers in general, talk about your teacher of oral expression.

B: Yeah, Yeah. He give us the choice of (emh) so, we choose subject that you like to speak about. Subject famous. It was very interesting actually.

A: Yeah, OK.(Question 7)

B: The first thing that I do I write it down.

A: You write it down, where?

B: So, you can, for example, you can find this in a textbook or something like that.

A: Do you write it?

B: Just a notebook, I write it down, then, actually I try learning this word first globally. Means here, I don't check the word.

A: Check the meaning.

B:yeah, check the meaning directly, but actually I try to understand the meaning from the context first. Yeah, the, after that when I finish reading, I check the meaning of this word, and check if it is the same thing, and actually I try to (emh) to, know, write the meaning of this word in a phrase.

A: Very good, in your own sentence, with your own words to memorize it.

B: Yeah yeah, not just words.

A: Good, it's a very good strategy.(Question8) you're performing, you are doing a conversation with your classmates, and then you forget a word, what do you do in this case ??

B: Yeah it's happens a lot actually, Yeah I try to change it with another word.

A: looking for synonyms of the word.

B: Yeah.

A: Good, and if it doesn't work?

B: You can use your body language actually in order to (interrupt).

A: Body language, very good, interesting.

B: Yeah.

A: For peer assessment, normally you've an idea what do we mean by peer assessment I explained it in the questionnaire, peer assessments I said that you've an activity and when you come to practice it, it's not the teacher who'll assess your performance, he gives a chance to your classmates, your friends to assess you?

B: Yeah.

A: Here. (Question9)

B: Yes of Course.

A: Why?

B: You know, we learn the strategy of the teachers, it's very interesting actually to know the (pause) you know we're learning, so, when you read the paper of your classmate, you learn (interrupt)

A: Not just the paper, let's talk about oral speaking here.

B: Yeah yeah, it's very interesting, I learnt a lot from this, you know when you focus with your classmates (interrupted)

A: Focusing, very good, focusing means paying attention here.

B: Yeah, we can learn a lot from our mistakes (interrupted)

A: Exchanging experiences, information.

B: Yeah.

A: Very good.

B: I'm not sure (hesitated)

A: It means you don't trust their assessment? When the teacher asks them to assess you?

B: Maybe (hesitated still)

A: (Helping) or day just trust some learners.

B: (pause) You know here the question is tricked little bit, it means here I'm interested in or?

A: Not interested, about your (pause) first group, day think they're able to assess you when you come to perform a speaking activity.

B: Still hesitated.

A: Are they able?

B: Maybe.

A: Some of them, all of them.

B: Yeah, maybe some of them.

A: What about you? (Question 11).

B: Yeah, maybe.

A: You've this ability, good, confident.

(Question 12) Should we give them a chance to experience that and why?

B: Yeah, actually then they can learn more, so it's all about learning we're here in order to learn, so we cannot really just think about the teacher, that is always the boss.

A: just leaving the teacher doing everything.

B: Yeah, we must be good students (smile) you know.

A: Yeah it means we've to give them a chance to participate in the learning process.

B: Yes, Yes.

2- Abdelkrim

A: (Question 1) Are you a good language learner, are you an average or middle or low?

B: An average.

A: How have you evaluated or said that?

B: I can speak with anyone in English (pause) I can have a conversation maybe with a native speaker in English.

A: Good. (Question 2) When I say independent means autonomous as learner for the environment it's inside University and outside.

B: Yes, it helps.

A: Both?

B: Outside helps more.

A: How?

B: I can't talk with my classmates and some friends who know English.

A: Yeah, Good. (Question 3) what do you advise others to do to improve their oral speaking abilities?

B: Maybe watching movies in English, and listen to some conversations.

A: That is it?

B: Yes.

A: This is what you're doing now to improve your English?

B: Yes.

A: Good. You've a range of choices about activities.(Question 4)

B: Ah. First watching movies, and listening to music, and the third one talking with native speakers, talking with myself (interrupted)

A: Have you done this before?

B: Yes. Then, reading English books, newspapers.

A: Good, Now, let's talk about oral expression.

B: Yes.

A: (Question 5) Let me explain, when the teacher gives you an activity, do you prefer to work individually in pair or group work? And why?

B: Individually.

A: Why?

B: Because you'll have to improve your (pause) skills.

A: Individually it works better than being in a group or pairs.

B: Yes.

A: Yeah, good. (Question6)

B: No.

A:(Question7)

B: Maybe searching and finding some definitions of the word and the try to put them in phrases,sentences.

A: Good. (Question8)

B: Ah (pause) Maybe I'm going to find another word.

A: If not?

B: if not (laugh) try to be calm to remember it.

A: Do not be stressed, very good. Then teacher explains was peer assessment East and then poses the 9th question.

B: Yes.

A: Why?

B: Maybe your classmates know something that you don't know.

A: It means you'll learn from them?

B: You'll learn from them.

A: Good. (Question10).

B: Yes, they've.

A: All of them?

B: Not all of them, some.

A: Question 11.

B: Yes.

A: Question12. With explanation.

B: Maybe we give them a chance.

A: Why?

B: Because as you said before it is not all about the teacher.

A: Yeah.

B: they'd take part.

3- *Abdessamed.*

A: Question 1

B: An immediate language learner.

A: How do you evaluate yourself like that?

B: I try to evaluate myself through watching TV, reading books, talking with my friends online chat, and reading such newspaper in English like daily mail British.

A: Question 2

B: Yes, learning (ehm) if you find the good environment, you'll learn easily.

A: For your environment here and outside? Does it help you?

B: Here or outside?

A: At university and outside.

B: In University I find the process of learning English very easy because it helps you to improve you English through talking with friends and discuss different topics in English. And outside the University, I find it very hard because I don't talk much English.

A: No, English outside.

B: No, English outside, just inside.

A: Question 3

B: They must talk, talking is the key to this process, and improve your English. So we need to talk every day in English and talking everything in English, not like translating from English to Arabic.yu have t think in English.

A: In English, forget about your mother language.

B: Yes, in English because(ehm) because I found a lot of problems when I was thinking in Arabic.

A: Question 4

B: The first one I prefer listening to music, the second is reading English books, the third one is talking with native speakers, and the fourth one is talking with myself.

A: In front of a mirror, have you done this before?

B: Not really (laughing).

A: Question 5

B: Actually, I prefer group work, because group work is the most effective (pause) in discussing and having new thoughts.

A: It means exchanging ideas with your classmates.

B: Yes.

A: Question 6

B: Yes, yes. Actually he did, the subject of Palestine, it was very interested in it.

A: It means he gave a number of topics or what has he done?

B: He talked about Palestine, and like, he talked, he explained what should we do to set it free like, he said that Palestine is our duty to go there and fight to get their freedom.

A: Question 7

B: Actually, I write it

A: write it !Where do you write it ?

B: in (ehm) in (ehm) actually I write it in (ehm) a notebook.

A: a notebook!

B: yes, a notebook, because actually (laughing) I don't remember all the words, I prefer to write them.

A: to write them, and then what happens later?

B: and then I explain them from English to English.

A: synonyms.

B: yeah! Synonyms, that's it.

A: then, will you use these words to remember to memorize them?

B: actually (laughing) not all the time.

A: Question 8

B: I try to find the synonym.

A: And if it doesn't work?

B: I go to Arabic.

A: You switch to you mother tongue.

B: Yes, I switch to Arabic just to solve the problem.

A: Question 9

B: I find peer assessment not helpful to improve the student's level, because the student in class may be shies to talk and improve and express himself in front of his friends.

A: Question 10

B: Actually, they don't, they are not like the teacher I said, they are not able to assess your real level.

A: Question 11

B: Actually, No (laughing)

A: Question 12

B: Actually, teachers should assess their learners.

A: Why?

B: They are not capable to do that, I do not trust them, we leave it for the teacher.

4- Anis

A: Question 1

B: Actually, I think I'm a good language learner for the progress how I evaluate my learning process, it's through taking online tests or through speaking to natives, yeah, comparing myself to them. This's how I do.

A: Question 2.

B: Actually No, because they judge you here, if you speak English outside University or inside of the university, you're like showing off, like you're in another words, without saying an arrogant. So, it doesn't help.

A: Question 3

B: Actually I follow a way, which is when reading a novel, I try to read it out loud, or listening to the audiobook or a novel trying to imitate the speaker of it.

A: Imitation, very good, Listening Imitating. Good.

A: Question 4.

B: Yeah, like watching movies, listening to music, Ah, reading English books, talking to natives, talking to myself.

A: Question 5.

B: Actually, to be honest, I like doing my oral sessions work individually because I try to focus more on myself. Yeah this's why I'm (pause), Like presenting a project or doing some sorts affectively, when do it alone is better than do it in group, because when you're in group, you won't show your real level, but when you're individual. Ah, when you're as an individual you can show your real level.

A: Question 6

B: Yeah, actually, he did

A: Do you remember one of the experiences?

B: Actually, he told us, like to suggest topics and talk about them.

A: Yeah, very good, suggesting topics and discussing them.

A: Question 7

B: Actually, in order to learn anything. You gonna put it in use.

A: Very good. Question 8

B: Actually, replacing it may be with another word, or another expression.

A: Very good. Question 9

B: Actually, it's somehow helpful, because you're being criticized for your word. Yeah. So, if you're a good English teacher or a good Language Learner, you're going to accept any opinion about it, but if you're in the other side, you won't accept it.

A: Question 10

B: (Smiling) some of them.

A: Some of them!

B: Yeah.

A: You don't trust all the classmates.

B: No

A: Why?

B: Actually, I'm not being arrogant; but according to their level it is not that good.

A: Question 11

B: I guess so

A: I guess so, confidence, good

A: Question 12

B: Actually, you'd give students a chance to evaluate their classmates work but you'd be part of it too.

A: as a guide here

B: Yeah, as guide

A: why should we do so?

B: Actually, encouraging your students making their opinion clear and showing their abilities not staying hidden.

A: Question 1

B: I would say good.

A: Why?

B: Because I take it step by step, I don't stress myself; I don't even bother myself to worry about the information. I let it sink by itself.

A: Very good, Question 2.

B: Inside University, concerning professors and teachers, Yeah, it helps me this environment because we're tackling the same subjects and the same field; but with students I don't think so outside the University.

A: Why?

B: Ah (moving her head) when you start talking in English, they say you're bragging about it, you're showing off. You've to talk our language.

A: So, the environment outside (interrupt)

B: it's not helpful at all.

A: Great. Question 3

B: They've to improve their listening skills; they've to watch movies and listen to music and follow the lyrics because it would help them also with dictionaries.

A: Dictionaries! How can dictionaries help them?

B: they've to listen to pronunciation of word itself. Also the transcription, it may help a lot.

A: Good, Question 4

B: (reading choices) Watching TV movies in English, Ah, reading English books (then add further choice) also listening to English books, listening to music with lyrics of course, listening to radio to have the new vocabulary , talking to native speakers, you know, about idioms, proverbs and new vocabulary, talking to myself in front of a mirror.

A: Have you done this before?

B: Yeah, I've done this.

A: And it works?

B: Yeah, it's so helpful.

A: Question 5.

B: Well, it depends on the activity itself.

A: How?

B: If it's a dialogue between two persons, to be a pair work . If it is same activity like a game, it's to be between members, you have to discuss with them the ideas. i have same idea, the other one has another idea, maybe his ideas are better than mine , so we have to discuss it. And since it's oral it makes progress in my pron

A: Yeah good .Question 6.

B: I remember with crosswords and guessing the words in my partners head or brain.

A:The students didn't really get the question, so teacher decided to explain).

B: not really

A: good. Question7.

B: Well, I've to know the meaning of this word and then put it in a sentence, use it, and maybe find another synonym.

A: very good, why do you put it in a sentence?

B: In a sentence, to make it easy to use it.

A: very god, in a sentence of your own words.

B: Of my own words to make it easy for me to use it another day, maybe the other day, I don't remember the word itself, but I remember the sentence and the meaning. So it's gonna lead me to the word itself.

A: Question 8

B: I'll try to improvise and rephrase my words.

A: Rephrasing!

B: Rephrasing.

A: And you'll not switch to your mother language?

B: Ah No, It's not helpful at all.

A:Question 9

B: It depends on the level of the student.

A: It depends on the level, yeah.

B: Ah, the level of the student, Maybe my partner or my classmate won't get what I want to say, but the teacher will. So, sometimes, it may be useful and sometimes not.

A: Question 10

B: Some members, yeah they do, may be one or two; but others I don't think so

A: You do not trust them?

B: I do not trust them at all.

A: Question 11.

B: Not one hundred percent but I can do better than them.

A: Question 12.

B: For now let's just leave it to the teacher and by time (interrupt) .

A:Why?

B: Maybe the teacher will give us the methods to correct or to assess our classmate works.

A: And why have you said "No» for now?

B: For now, depends on(ah) this year, they are not able to evaluate our works.

A: Regarding their level of proficiency they are not yet (interrupt).

B: Especially this year.

A: Capable of(interrupt).

B: Second year was so hard for them.

A: Yeah, it means leave it for Teacher now.

B: Leave it for the teacher for now.

6- Mabrouk

A:Question1.

B:I think I'm a middle level because i don't read much and study that much.

A:Question2.

B:Not that much because (ehm) for example,my classmates we don't sit together and study or talk with each other in English.So, we are not progressing at higher level.

A:Question3.

B: They have to read books, watch movies, watch videos for (ehm) for some people who are in a high level of (ehm).

A:Means native speakers maybe.

B:Native speakers, watch documentaries is very helpful.

A: And are you doing that?

B: Sometimes.

A:Someone, Yeah, Question 4.

B: First place will be reading books, newspapers and novels; the second I think talking with native speakers is very helpful, watching movies and talking with myself with help.

A: Have you done this before?

B: Yes.

A: Talking with yourself, in front of a mirror, why?

B: Because I'm comfortable with myself. Listening to music not very helpful, listening to Radio it works.

A: Very Good. Q5

B: Maybe in groups or in pairs not individually.

A: Why?

B: Because we have the opportunity to share ideas, to exchange Expressions, to talk with each other in English.

A: Question 6.

B: Yes, he used to do that before, sometimes.

A: Question 7.

B: I try to know what the meaning of this word is.

A: Very good , the meaning.

B: and maybe put it in a sentence and try to use it.

A: Good.

B: I try to remember it maybe says it in Arabic and my classmates may help me.

A: Good, Q9.

B: Yes, because my classmates will judge me and will give their own opinions because as classmates, we share the same level.

A: Question 10.

B: Not that much because in the normal cases ,we do not communicate very often and they can't judge for example my pronunciation or my knowledge about something.

A: Question 11.

B: (pausing), I give them my opinion about their exposés, their homework, and their pronunciation in class.

A: Its means you are able to do that?

B: Yes, but not very much.

A:Question 12.

B: I think that we'd give opportunity for students and the teachers because teachers have more experience than students.

A: talking about students why should we give them that chance to assess their classmates oral performance?

B: as I said, we are students so we share the same level and it's very helpful because we can give you some ideas or suggestions about ourselves.

APPENDIX L: Teachers' interviews transcripts

Teacher 1: Hanane

A : Question1

B : I think autonomy for Ls of oral expression is highly important because if they do not take responsibility for their learning they will never speak , they will never take opportunity to produce the language , that is it . Autonomy for me is not an initial step, it should be a final step during the learning process especially with the speaking skill. I mean , at first we should not wait from students to be autonomous , but gradually autonomy will be the most . I mean the last stage in his / her learning.

A : Question2

B : Well , for me the autonomous L is the one who is motivated to learn , the non-autonomous L is not going to learn something interesting , if he depends on what the T gives him only inside the classroom , he will never learn . This is it , autonomy means learning.

A : Question3

B : Well , the characteristics(pausing) I mean inside the class , how do you know that this L is autonomous ?

A :No, We can say autonomous L when he perform inside or outside the classroom.

B : yeah , that's it .He 's the L who gives you inside the class what you didnt mention .It means he is working outside .This is the main characteristic .I mean autonomous L gives addition inside the class.

A : Question4

B : Well , it is a bit hard , since i dont have enough experience in teaching oral expression.

A : Let's talk about it in general.

B : i dont have really strategies how to promote my Ls to be autonomous ; but i tell them i always advise them that what we are doing inside the classroom is not enough for you at all .You have to work outside , to listen at English in TV, Internet , you have a lot of tools , a lot of technologies where you can be exposed to the language . So do your best.

A : Question 5

B : Well by motivating them wherever , i notice that s bis bringing something new to the class .I try to encourage him to show that he is doing something interesting , that he is the one who learning.

A : Question6

B :Yeah for sure .I always try to involve them in my choices espeiacly for the speaking skill and never impose on them what to speak about. I always give them choices.For example, when i make presentations i let them choose any topic they want. Whatever it is a talent within the student he can do a presentation about his own talent , about something which is interesting for him ; politices , economy , sports .Many students make presentation about different sports.i give them the total freedom to do that .

A : Question7

B : Not always because sometimes it is the it is teacher alone who is needed especially I am teaching first-year learners they are they have no idea about the language in general so you have to and told use for them many times before giving them the opportunity to express their opinions

Well to be frank it depends on my preparation if I prepare a lot of activities I may let them select if I don't have enough activities just one or two I will just ask them to do them

So far I have applied to main speaking activities inside the classroom where my students which I think they gave autonomous for my learner's the first one is very beginning of the year when they were just being initiated to the language.

I give them talk to listen passages to listen I choose to students

I make them listen to One Passage

One student goes outside the classroom

and the other one repeats to students what has listened to

he tries to express in his way

then the second one Intuit and repeat also what he has listening to and then their classmates judge who is the best listener who is the best speaker who is the best one who makes them understand the passage then I made some presentation as I said before I give them a total choice to choose any topic they want and then they present it group work or individually they wear free.

yeah a lot of times I mean pause frequently I organize them to work in groups

Do you think that group work helps better than individual work

In fact yes it helps because they try (ehm) influence each other

If there is inside the group so is talented speaking English so the other ones tries to imitate try to improve themselves in order to like them I see this kind of competition between students when they work in groups

For sure learner strategies are the key for autonomy I mean, when they acquire they learn how to

this is the keyword they will become autonomous

All right in fact I don't base my activities on peer assessment well I mean I think students can't assess each other in fact

I don't know how to express it but

you don't trust them to do that?

Yes that is it

they are not capable to do it

that's it they come comments each other I can accept it but to assess I think it is something left to teacher.

A : What are the benefits and disadvantages of peer assess ?

B : Well , for me , peer assessment i can trust some elements to do peer assess and its advantageous for students because i mean when a student is assessed by his peer , it will lower the anxiety. But for students who are not good enough , i cannot give them the chance to assess each other. It is dangerous because they will just play with each other, they will not take it seriously.

A : Q 13

B : i have never done it , but if i have to do it with excellent students .

A : Won't y give a chance to low level learners to experience it ?

B : Through peer assess ? they 'll improve their learning though it .

A : They will have to focus to pay more attention on their pper's learning and they will work hard to improve themselves.

B : Maybe.

A : Q14

B : Yes , i do it , i like to do it . If i learn more activities , more strategies

Yes , i'm applying it and i seek for more applications

A : Q15

B : Few of them , i mean only those who learn english from the media , from outside , they're autonomous. Those who are just depending on what the teacher gives inside the class , they're many they're the majority of students , they're not

A : Q16

B : It hinders , in fact , because of the number .Number of students is really in creadible . What do you think of teaching 25 students inside the laboratory for 45 mns perweek ? What are you going to do ? For me , most i mean for the first group , only when they get in the laboratory they keep their seats , they switch on their PCs. If i find that half an hour is left . I mean , what i can say ? The students of the language is a problem , the class management is another problem and also the mentality of the students.The majority of the students just are coming to take what the teacher says and going out . They' rent interested at all . I mean , they just want the mark at the end. This is the only motivation they're coming for.So , these are the 3 main factors thathinder autonomy from being applied.

Teacher 2: Abdenour

A : Q1

B : learner autonomy . It is about the student being independ.

The students relying on themeselves into acquiring more knowledge regarding the different modules , the different subjects studied .And i always urge them to do so , by the way to read more . to listen a lot.

A : Q2

B : The autonomous learner is way more knowledgeable than the unindpendent .He's more open to learn new things.,whether by listening or reading . However, the one who just depends on the teacher, he is gonna be followed for months and years .The time is not sufficient , the information won't be sufficient too .

A : Q3

B : You know , an autonomous learner will take advantage of what technology had brought over now. I mean , they can have PDFs instead of buying books, or they can have them both actually .

They can listen more and as a consequence their pronoun can be way better than SB who just depends on the teacher really.

They gonna improve very muh actually.

A : Q4

B : The teacher may suggest activities that encourage autonomy in class , but outside he could give pieces of advice on how to improve , regarding speaking activities or reading one that improve the students level.

A : Q5

B : How about suggesting a topic where they get to have their own opinion and express their opinions using their own style.

Make them free what ever you want , you choose a topic and they're allowed to describe it , or express themselves voice their opinions , sot hey seem of it.

A :Q6

B : i have done it before , it was suggested to me and a have accepte dit before actually not today. You know why , i was told that some of the activities that i suggested in the class weren't so encouraging . You know they learn a lot from them , they're a bit boring for them , that's what they told them . So i asked them to tell me what tasks motivate them . You know i'm not a book , they can sugget and i can (EHM) Yeah.

A : Q7

B : Here it's basically the same thing , you know i'm open to anything when they do suggest .Some of them don't care, some of them are a bit bored.You know the ones that're motivated , those have great ideas actually and i'm open to say suggestions. Anything that interests their , we're there to make it happen.

A : Q8

B : Not all the time , but i'm open to any suggestions . You know we dont have much time really.This topic comes applied once or twice .We 'unt had much time , you know we need them for months and year.

A :Q9 Can you talk of one of your expiriences where you share , or when you gave them a chance to take part ?

B : (thinking) we may consider what we have tackled with you by the way . You know the work they did together .Now , it was something new actually because we were used to a different system.

We used to tackle grammar , vocabulary tasks , topics that they discuss in their own styles. But with you , we 've dealt with somethong different , less boring . You told me that they were motivated by what we suggested .

A :Q10

B : I have done it this year .You know and they had fun ,sb of them had fun really .They got to choose their freinds , you know when we choose them accorging to overages , some had fun some didn't.We chose from different levels : the hard working,then the average, then the lows with low average , we're from different levels ,16 average , people with 13 or 12 and then 9 or 8 and they all worked together . You know some of them worked with their friends and some were separated by their average , there's nothing we can do (laugh). Most importantly , they worked in groups and they learnt to work together collectively, to share the idea express the idea.

A : Q11 How do you think can group work help them ?

B : Regarding whether we organise them in groups or not , actually we do sometimes .Yeah , we haven't done it before you , but when you suggested those activities , they benefited greatly from them , by the way they worked together , they learnt to share their opinions , they used to revise their opinions , then after you know they revice their opinions then voive them. Group work tends to improve their performance. But this is regarding the hard working by the way , yes working together was useful .

A : Q11

B : EHM , the learners gets to know where does he belong because we have vatergies .Those who use their memories those who repetition those who use different strategies .They

now know where do they belong.Plus , these are helping mechanisms to enable them to be better.

A : Q12

B : you know it is actually a great thing to keep them attentive , to keep them interested in class , to check whether they are paying attention or not .The shortcoming here is the fact that some of them may not speak with the others. You know , we still don't have a good handle of criticisms.In the Algerian community, we don't handle criticisms very well , we redictators by the way , we don't accept others' opinion, that's the problem .That's the short coming .I've seen it when i was preparing magister's degree , cilicizing some body , hem ay not speak for a while .

A : Q13

B : Peer assessment (thinking) just briefly . I don't really recall.

Can i get back to this one , i have to think about it .No, no it is just briefly ot (thinking)

A :Q14

B :Of course i do of course i do .Perfect example would be giving them topics and let them thinking about them and yo uknow voicing their opinions about them , using their own styles , ideas , expiriences Ah this is a kind of and i always give them pieces of advices , i always tell them ; go and listen to AljazeeraInternational listen to BBC Inter .You know when they are familiar with different accents The American ,The British , The Canadian,The Australian even the accent of New Zealand and south Africa , why not , you know you get to learn English from different approaches , from diffrent angles pronunciation gets better , you improve your pronouciation you improve every where , you grammar , vocabulary ,abilities.

A : Q15

B : Youknow 99% are not .The minority , not just the minority it is 1% percent .Those who ask for PDFs , those who ask for a pieces of advice , those who ask for websites , those who ask for links , those who are not care , they just absorb what you give them and use it in the exam and it is not good for them.

A :Q16

B :When we suggest , you know John Piaget asked a one million dollar question he said : what is the aim of learning or education in general ?

Do we give the students something and they give it back or do we teach them to think ?

I believe we teach them to think , that's the aim of education .Unfortunately when we teach the students to take the information by heart , when we ask them to give the exact in the exam, we are not letting them develop we are not encouraging them to think .Ah , that's the problem .Sometimes , we tend to give them something and we expect the exact thing in the exam or in the class.Oh let's see, you are talking about the curriculum in general or ?

A : Everything

B :It depends on(Interrup)

A :The environment here inside University ,is enviro help learners ?

B : It does help them , i ll tell you why because we are allowed to choose whatever we want to teach and we are allowed to (EHM) even when we correct the exam papers , we are allowed to accept logical explanations , so , no one's gonna come to twist you to tell you do this . So, it does help.You know i was telling my students to give me logical explanation.You know when you tie their hands with an exavt copy of what you have given then you are not

allowing them to think. So, we have the freedom to whatever we think is right for them and I believe it helps what's bad is tying their hands to something or twisting it out into giving an exact replica of what we give them. That doesn't help them to think. Now, going back to 13. Could you trigger my memory, have we done something before like this or not?

A : we haven't

B (thinking) I guess, I haven't done it I haven't, I gonna think about it. I have Alzheimers. Now if you encourage them to criticize each other, no one will speak to the other. They have trouble with criticism in the Arab community.



